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ABSTRACT

In an attempt to classify some of the vast research on job stress, this annotated bibliography presents over 170 references relating to burnout, stress, and job satisfaction among managers, executives, and administrators. Bibliographic information is provided for each reference along with a summary of major ideas, and results and conclusions. The resources, all published within the last 15 years, include both books and journals, and cover theoretical perspectives as well as empirical research, national and international aspects, and public and private settings. References include discussions of specific sources of stress and burnout and actions that can promote health and job satisfaction. The bibliography is directed to practicing managers, business students and faculty, and psychologists. (JAC)

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OCCUPATIONAL STRESS AND BURNOUT:

ANNOTATIONS

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1983

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INTRODUCTION: ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY

Enormous interest in and concern over burnout, stress and job satisfaction has been spawned in the last two decades, reflected in a growing published literature in these areas. This literature is in turn widely scattered and in various forms, a condition which places obstacles in the path of the serious student of the subject. At the same time, as vast as the literature is, there have been few attempts to systematically classify it or organize it through meaningful themes or sub-topics.

The annotated bibliography published herein represents one such attempt. It contains some 170+ sources, all pertaining to burnout, stress and job satisfaction among managers, executives, and administrators. Our primary intent in producing such a bibliography is to allow an interested person to directly examine the literature that exists in the area of stress/burnout among these occupational groups. For each source, bibliographic information is provided so that the reader may locate the original article or book if desired. The annotations have been written with the goal of presenting the major ideas, concepts, results, and conclusions contained within the individual sources.

Given the size and scope of the published literature on job stress, burnout and satisfaction, the reader may well ask, what criteria were employed in the selection of the references discussed in this annotated bibliography. The sources had to pertain to managers, administrators and executives, and in addition, be published within the last fifteen to twenty years. Beyond these criteria, we chose selectively what were considered to be the best of the sources, in terms of such factors as information, scope, and quality of research. Thus, although there was certainly an element of subjectivity in the selection process, no systematic exclusionary criteria were used.

The sources described in this bibliography include both theoretical perspectives on burnout, stress and job satisfaction as well as many examples of empirical research. They include both journal articles and books, and span national and international aspects of the field. Both public and private sector settings are discussed. Further evidence of the scope of the literature included may be derived from the following examples of journals represented in the bibliography: Administrative Science Quarterly, Harvard Business Review, Health and Social Work, Journal of Abnormal Psychology, Journal of Applied Psychology, Journal of Human Stress, Journal of Rehabilitation Administration, Occupational Health and Safety, Personnel Administrator, Personnel Journal, Supervisory Management, and Wall Street Journal.

We feel that collectively the sources present a variety of interesting and significant issues in a field that continues to be of major concern to society. There can be little doubt of the enormous cost to this nation of burnout and job-related stress, in financial, social and psychological terms. Yet we are still in a state of infancy relative to dealing effectively with these problems. Some of the references included in this bibliography are concerned with the most recent innovations companies and organizations have adopted to prevent and/or alleviate job stress and burnout among their employees. From the perspective of the manager/administrator/executive, the references include discussions of specific sources of burnout and stress as well as courses of action these individuals can take to promote the health and job satisfaction of their subordinates. In addition, the references explore such issues as: Are the causes of stress and burnout different for male and female employees; How are stress and burnout related to satisfaction with various aspects of the job, such as salary, promotional opportunities, and relations with co-workers; Is their empirical evidence to support the theory that such techniques as Transcendental Meditation can actually reduce stress and its effects; What are the specific relationships between burnout/stress and employee turnover and abseenteeism; and, What are the effects of home and family related stress on an individual's work performance.

The bibliography is viewed as being relevant to practicing managers and administrators, as well as to students and faculty involved in the rapidly increasing schools and colleges of business throughout the country. In addition to these audiences, it has a broad application for many branches of psychology, including industrial, organizational and experimental. Indeed, any student of human behavior or human welfare may find the bibliography useful, depending upon his/her specific interests. The source will permit the reader to critically evaluate selected literature in the stress/burnout field and therein lies its unique feature.

T.F.R.
M.M.B.

Abel-Halim, A.A. Employee affective responses to organizational stress: Moderating effects of job characterizations. Personnel Psychology, 31(3), 1978, 561-579.

Past research has focused on organizational or role stress as a factor that influences affective and behavioral role responses. It has been stated that role stress results from conflicting, incompatible or unclear expectations that are derived from the work environment. Two role characteristics have been identified as sources of role stress: role ambiguity and role conflict. The author's major objective for this study was to extend the validity of previous research findings concerning the relative importance of each of three role variables: role conflict, role ambiguity and role overload as sources of stress and job dissatisfaction among managerial personnel. The second purpose was to examine the moderating effects of one set of situational variables on the relationship between the three role stressors and intrinsic job satisfaction, involvement, and anxiety.

Data was collected from a sample of 89 managerial personnel drawn from six units of a large heavy equipment manufacturing company in the midwest. The average age of the respondents was 45 years with a range from 30 to 60 years. All subjects were white males and had at least a high school diploma with 52% having the BS degrees or higher. The average income was 30,000-35,000 dollars.

The author defined role conflict as "the perception of incompatible or incongruent demands placed on the role incumbent". Role ambiguity was defined as a condition in which the information available to a given organizational position is inadequate or vague. Role overload was defined as the lack of adequate resources required to comply with role expectations or demands. Job involvement was defined as the importance of the work relative to other life roles. Job anxiety involved evaluation of feelings of tension, nervousness, worry and apprehension. Job enrichment referred to attempts to make the job more interesting, challenging and significant by adding dimensions such as variety, autonomy, feedback and control.

The principal results of the study include the finding that role ambiguity makes the greatest contribution to the variance in the affective response measures. Role conflict has a stronger negative relationship than role overload with role satisfaction and role overload has a stronger positive relationship with job anxiety than does role conflict. Individuals with high enriched jobs report a higher level of job involvement under a condition of high role ambiguity than do individuals from low enriched jobs. Individuals from high enriched jobs are significantly more satisfied with work itself than are those with low enriched jobs under conditions of high work overload.

The results of this study indicate that role ambiguity is the variable with the strongest relationship with affective role responses in the predicted directions. Significant interactions are obtained between role ambiguity and role overload but not role conflict and job enrichment characteristics. Results also support the thesis that certain role stressors, role ambiguity and work overload, are more aversive for individuals on low enriched jobs than for those on high enriched. The significance of this study for administrators is that it suggests that organizations should assess the gains and losses which accompany various levels of work in terms of enriched vs. unenriched jobs.

Adams, P.G. & Slocum, J.W., Jr. Work group and employee satisfaction. Personnel Administration, 1971, 34, 37-44.

Considerable attention has been given to group properties. In particular, group cohesiveness has been examined with respect to its determinants and its consequences. Much of the research that has been conducted, however, has been done in laboratories. Studies in cohesiveness in connection with the industrial environment are rare.

Highly cohesive groups are assumed to experience greater job satisfaction than groups with lower levels of cohesion. Evidence exists which indicates that employee level of job satisfaction is related to how well he/she is liked by other members of his/her own group. Further studies indicate that social aspects of employment are a primary factor affecting job satisfaction. Indeed, data from 15 studies indicate that employees ranked social aspects first on a list as one of the characteristics that determined their job satisfaction. These findings indicate that highly cohesive groups would be likely to experience higher job satisfaction when compared to lower cohesive groups.

A study was conducted to test the relationship between group cohesiveness and worker satisfaction. For purposes of this study, group cohesiveness described a characteristic of a group whose members saw themselves as a part of the group, desired to continue as a part of the group if given the alternative to leave, and who valued their inter-member relationships more than the low cohesive group. Questionnaires were administered classifying five environmental work factors. These included (1) the job itself, (2) the supervisor, (3) the company, (4) the degree of freedom, and (5) salary. Subjects who responded to the questionnaire included 142 employees representing a variety of occupations. The study sought to ascertain whether group members of highly cohesive groups exhibited a higher degree of overall satisfaction than group members of low cohesive groups.

Results of this study indicate that cohesiveness is a significant factor in predicting employee satisfaction. Highly cohesive groups were more satisfied with their job, experienced more freedom to perform their job, and were more satisfied with their benefits than were low cohesive groups.

Aiken, W.J., Smits, S.J., & Lollar, D.J. Leadership behavior and job satisfaction in state rehabilitation agencies. Personnel Psychology, 1972, 25, 65-73.

State rehabilitation agencies have spent little time, energy or money to increase the effectiveness of supervisory personnel. The focus has been on rehabilitation counselors on the basis that counselors are the direct link between the rehabilitation agency and the handicapped client.

The study reviewed used a similar rationale: that the supervisor is the direct link between the state rehabilitation agency and the personnel providing services to clients. There is very little research dealing with supervisory behavior in state agencies. Industry has been engaged in studying the behavior of supervisory and managerial staff for many years. It is difficult to apply industrial results to state agencies due to the fact that rehabilitation and industry differ in two essential ways: Rehabilitation is a governmental activity rather than free enterprise, and Industry more clearly defines production and quality.

Supervisors have traditionally been promoted from the counseling staff. The passage of P.L. 89-333 resulted in an expansion of rehabilitation services to individuals who had not received services previously, i.e., public offenders, drug addicts, chronically unemployed, alcoholics, welfare recipients, and the severely disabled. Due to such major changes in the service delivery system, the skills of a supervisor are of vital importance to under-trained and inexperienced counselors. The supervisor must be competent in education-consultative activities in which he helps the untrained counselor develop skills and attitudes necessary to provide services to clients. This study represents an attempt to isolate leadership behaviors and aspects of job satisfaction which counselors see as important within state agencies.

A 10% random sample of 360 counselors was drawn from personnel lists in 31 participating state rehabilitation agencies. Of the 360 sets of materials mailed, 267 were returned. Of these returned, 18 could not be used due to the fact that the individuals were not counselors, had terminated employment, or were ill or were deceased. Thus, the maximum number of appropriate subjects sampled was 342. Of the 342 counselors sampled, 230 returned complete and usable materials, while 28 returned had one or more incomplete items. The statistical analyses are based on the 230 complete sets of survey materials.

Four subscales of the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire, form XII were selected for inclusion in the study. Parts of the total scale have been used in empirical research by military organizations, industry, and education (Stogdill, 1959). Form XII represents the fourth revision of the questionnaire which developed out of a theory of role differentiation and group achievement as well as subsequent research on the hypothesized subscales. The four subscales selected for use in this study were: Initiation of Structure (clearly defines own role, and lets followers know what is expected of them); Tolerance of Freedom (allows follower scope for initiative, decision, and action); and Production Emphasis (applies pressure for productive output). This instrument was selected because it was believed it could furnish useful information concerning the nature of supervisor-counselor relationship.

The Job Satisfaction Inventory (JSI) was developed by Muthard and Miller (1966) as part of their study of criteria to be used in evaluation of rehabilitation counseling. It is divided into the following eight areas: physical and mental exertion; relations with associates; relations with employers; security; advancement and finances; interest in, liking for, and emotional involvement in the job; job information, training, and status; physical surrounding and work conditions; and future, goals and progress.

The high intercorrelations among the subscales of the Relationship Inventory suggests that the general quality of the supervisory relationship was measured rather than specific aspects of it. With the exception of the correlation between Production Emphasis and Initiation of Structure, the PE variable did not appear to be related to the other variables studied here. The results of the factor analysis suggest that the most important aspect of employment in state rehabilitation agencies, as far as counselors are concerned, is the interpersonal behavior in which the supervisor and the counselor engage. How the supervisor greats the counselor seems to be far more important then working conditions or the reward system of the agency.

The importance of the supervisor-counselor relationship is consistent with the role demands of the counselor's position. Counselors frequently cite "wanting to help people" and "wanting to be intimately involved with people" as their rationale for entering the field. A major component of their role demands is the ability to establish rapport with clients. It is not surprising then that these same people look to their supervisors for help via an interpersonal modality.

While the emphasis within the system has been on the administration functions of the supervisor, a comparison of Factor III, Leader Directed Aspects of the Job and Factor I, Interpersonal Aspects of the Work Environment, strongly indicates the need to look at the role of the supervisor in a new light. If more emphasis is given to the educational-consultative functions of the supervisor it would have profound implications for the selection, training, and utilization of supervisory personnel within state rehabilitation agencies.

More than $500 million is spent annually in state/federally funded rehabilitation programs. The large expenditure of funds and the social and humanitarian importance of the rehabilitation effort would seem to justify research efforts aimed at identifying and minimizing the constraints and maximizing the incentives in state rehabilitation agencies. No one has reported research in which rehabilitation supervisors have received management training in terms of specific supervisory skills, i.e., directing and motivating counselors, planning courses of action, handling grievances, etc. Such research is strongly recommended.

Alexander, L. Effective time management techniques. *Personnel Journal*, 1981, *60*, 637-640.

Finding time for complex, long-term tasks is a problem for many managers. Managers avoid ambiguous assignments, tend to prefer to work on concrete tasks, and tend to prefer short-term tasks. Tasks performed by managers can be classified according to two dimensions: degree of difficulty and duration of effort. Simple, short-term tasks have a small element of ambiguity. Simple, long-term tasks have an intermediate amount of ambiguity, as do complex, short-term tasks. Complex long-term tasks are of a highly ambiguous nature and are avoided in favor of less ambiguous tasks.

Approaches commonly used to make progress on highly ambiguous tasks include first completing all the routine and urgent tasks (which may not permit the manager to ever get started on long-term tasks), trying to work on three or four special projects at once (which typically fails since the manager is spread too thin), promising to start important projects when things get less hectic (which fails because things often never return to normal), and continually talking about the project to be started (but never actually starting it).

Since these approaches are rarely successful, suggestions are made using a more methodical approach with complex tasks. These include: the five-minute brainstorm; working on high payoff activities; focusing attention on smaller, individual activities; blocking out an adequate length of time; working when feeling best; starting each session with something easy; redefining the project, and controlling interruptions.

Suggestions for dealing effectively with long-term tasks include determining a realistic time commitment per week; specifying tasks in advance; establishing a regular time for working on long-term projects; establishing deadlines for intermediate progress points; switching to other aspects of the overall task; avoiding the activity trap (making sure the focus is on completion of task); limiting the number of major projects; and recording ongoing progress each week.

Amunason, N.E. & Borgan, W.A. The dynamics of unemployment: Job loss and job search. Personnel and Guidance Journal, 1982, 60(9), 562-564.

The process of unemployment is studied in terms of job loss, job search, the dynamics of unemployment and implications of suitable intervention. Employment offers individuals a means of identity as well as satisfaction of the needs expressed by Maslow. When employment is terminated the individual goes through a five-stage psychological process. The stages are: denial, anger, bargaining, depression, and acceptance. Denial is expressed when the person is angry or confused about the job termination. If bargaining for employment is not successful, depression may result, which is indicated by lethargy and desire for solitude. If the individual feels powerless with the situation he may come to the realization that acceptance and increased energy are necessary to obtain further employment.

To begin a job search the individual must determine his goals and job-seeking strategy. This stressful activity is important in re-establishing a person's self-esteem. If the individual encounters great stress or frustration in his job search he may experience burnout, which is manifested by apathy or increased reliance on drugs or alcohol. Lack of success in the job search may also lead to low energy levels and low self-confidence.

The dynamics of unemployment are explained in a two stage model. The first stage is a job loss/grieving process which has the five variables of denial, anger, bargaining, depression, and acceptance. The second stage, job search/burnout, includes the four variables of enthusiasm, stagnation, frustration, and apathy. If this second stage is prolonged, a person's enthusiasm for obtaining employment is reduced or extinguished. The model used to explain the dynamics of unemployment is based on a continuum which takes into account the emotions of individuals as they pass through the stages of job loss and job search.

Counselors are needed to help clients determine where they stand along the continuum and to offer them interventions which may lead to successful employment. A counselor should help the client to understand his feelings of anger and assist him to the stage of acceptance so he can begin his job search. A counselor should help the client to identify marketable skills and develop a strategy to employ in his job search. Clients who have burned out should be encouraged by their counselor to establish new plans for their job search. The counselor should also encourage strengthening of the client's self-concept and validation of his feelings during this stage.

Anderson, C.R. Coping behavior as intervening mechanisms in the inverted--U stress--performance relationship. Journal of Applied Psychology, 1976, 61(1), 30-34.

Relationships among stress, coping behaviors, and performance were examined for 93 owner-managers of small businesses damaged by hurricane floods in central Pennsylvania in 1972. It was hypothesized that perceived stress and performance display an inverted--U relationship, and emotional coping mechanisms increase under higher stress. Previous research is discussed, subjects were interviewed regarding their handling of critical incidents under stress and then completed the subjective Stress Scale. Type of recovery effort following the flood was recorded, organizational performance was rated on a five-point scale, and final loss data were acquired.

A curvilinear relationship was obtained for perceived stress and performance of the organization. The data indicated a non-significant linear relationship while regression analysis suggested a significant nonlinear relationship. The curve was a close approximation of the inverted--U function with the exception of the high stress area of the curve. Here, performance tended to be average rather than decline. The relationship between the percentage of loss and performance had no consistent relationship. The use of Class I and Class II coping behaviors bears a positive, approximately linear realtionship to perceived stress. Class I mechanisms are the dominant coping response for moderate ranges of perceived stress, while Class II coping begins to predominate at high levels of stress.

Effectiveness of performance over a continuum of stress levels generally follows an inverted-U-shaped function. This hypothesis assumes that a threatening or stressful stimulus increases performance effectiveness to a certain point, and then "stress overload" develops. This was found to be significant for performance. The major conclusions of this research is that owner-managers of organizations who perceived high stress exhibited substantially different coping patterns than managers perceiving either moderate or low stress levels, and that anxiety associated with high stress leads to over-concentration, emotional and defensive coping mechanisms, and insufficient attention to problem-solving coping mechanisms, resulting in lower levels of performance.

It might be expected that improvement in performance can be achieved in one of two ways: a) by reducing perceived stress to the optimum zone primarily through counseling, and b) by forcing or aiding individuals to employ Class I mechanisms at high stress levels. The findings reported in this study suggest an underlying relationship between stress and the coping process which should aid in the management of stressful situations.

Anderson, C.R. Locus of control, coping behaviors, and performance in a stress setting: A longitudinal study. Journal of Applied Psychology, 1977, 62(4), 446-451.

This study was conducted to determine the relationship between managerial locus of control and the performance of managers. The variables of perceived stress and coping behaviors were also examined.

Interviews were conducted of owner-managers of 102 small businesses concerning their reactions to Hurricane Agnes which damaged about 430 businesses.

The first series of interviews were conducted about 8 months following the disaster. The variables measured were locus of control, perceived stress, coping behaviors, and organization performance.

The second set of interviews occurred approximately three years after the disaster. Locus of control and organization performance were the only variables measured at this time.

Previous findings were confirmed in that externals were found to perceive higher stress than internals in specific situations. Also, externals respond with more defensiveness and less task-oriented coping behavior than internals. The task oriented coping behaviors of internals were clearly related to a more successful solution of the problems deriving from the stressful event.

Anderson, C.R., Hellriegel, D. & Slocum, J.W. Jr. Managerial response to environmentally induced stress. Academy of Management Journal, 1977, 20(2), 260-272.

The purpose of this study was to examine how the owner-managers of 90 small businesses responded to a major change in their environment, a flood. Background literature on dealing with psychological stress is examined, specifically with respect to the coping behaviors involved.

The sample of this study included owner-managers of 102 businesses selected at random from a Pennsylvania community labeled a disaster area by the federal government after it had been struck by Hurricane Agnes in June, 1972. The data was collected approximately eight months after the flood and complete information was collected from 90 businesses.

The primary stressful stimulus was defined as the business loss incurred as a result of the flood. The variables assessed included: 1) number of business days lost; 2) percentage of assets lost; 3) dollar loss per day as a result of being out of business; 4) percentage of customers lost; and 5) total loss. Other factors studied included the personally held resources of the owner-managers that might be suitable for countering financial losses, personality, perceived stress, coping behaviors, and effectiveness.

The results indicated significant relationships between the objective amount of environmentally induced stress and the owner-managers' initial perceived stress. In addition, a significant positive relationship between the total number of business days lost and the level of initial perceived stress was found. This factor was judged by the owners to be a critical measure of losses sustained. All other environmental stress relationships were found to be nonsignificant. Individual stress relationships were found to be nonsignificant. Individuals holding a high level of personal monetary resources did not perceive less stress than those with low levels of monetary resources and the findings were similar for levels of external credit rating for both groups.

The owner-manager's personality was significantly related to his perception of the stressful situation. Further analysis was undertaken to investigate the relationship between personality and coping behaviors. The data indicated a positive and significant correlation between task centered coping behavior and effectiveness, as well as a negative and significant correlation between emotion centered coping behavior and effectiveness.

The effectiveness of a small organization's response to its environment appears to depend to a large extent on the coping behaviors of its key managers. These coping behaviors appear to result more from personal characteristics of the decision maker than from objective environmental demands or from available organizational resources, at least under conditions of stress. This suggests that increasing the decision making effectiveness of managers under conditions of stress should take the direction of altering their coping orientation, rather than simply providing other types of resources to aid recovery. This position is contrary to current thinking in the disaster relief area.

Anderson, J.C. & O'Reilly, C.A. Effects of an organizational control system on managerial satisfaction and performance. Human Relations, 1981, 34(6), 491-501.

An organization functions more efficiently when there is a collective goal to be achieved. The use of control mechanisms helps ensure achievement of this goal. Control systems establish criteria such as "specification of goals, translation of goals into standards of performance, the measurement of performance, and comparison with standards". One frequently used control system is performance appraisal because all of the criteria can be incorporated into the system.

The performance appraisal system is effective because objectives are clearly stated which in turn results in increased individual performance. A control system is ineffective when criteria consists of contradictory standards, uncontrollable dimensions, unattainable standards, or an unpredictable basis. Control systems are also ineffective if perceived to be so by higher management because of inability to encourage compliance. A control system's effectiveness is increased if corrective actions are available to encourage compliance. Use of rewards are also influential in increasing performance.

Organizational control systems have two objectives. The first is to "improve performance" while the second is "improving the satisfaction and commitment of organizational participants". In order to perform a study of these objectives, managerial personnel were selected. The group of 99 persons chosen had an average age of 35 years with 7 years tenure. Most of the persons, 65%, had college degrees. The study examined the following variables: participation in goal setting, goal specificity, goal difficulty, goal acceptance, evaluation acceptibility, system administration and support, feedback, reward contingency, and two dependent variables, overall performance and job satisfaction.

Results of the study indicate that the support of management in implementation of a control system is most influential in evoking desired performance levels. "Aspects of goal setting, measurement, and corrective action are significantly and independently associated with performance. ...Reward contingency is shown to be independently related to job satisfaction." The conclusion drawn from the study is that higher management should support the goals of a performance appraisal system or other control systems in order to improve job performance and satisfaction.

Andrews, F.M. & Farris, G.G. Time pressure and performance of scientists and engineers: A five-year panel study. Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, 1972, 8, 185-200.

Previous research has shown time pressure is an important job stress. Scientists and engineers have been found to be low performers if working under conditions of loose coordination and high autonomy. Greater scientific performance has been related to longer work days, thus suggesting that performance is related to time pressure. Overload (conflict among legitimate tasks) is suggested to be one characteristic related to a sense of time pressure. In addition, information input overload is apparent where under time pressure, an individual readily understands the familiar parts of a message, but fails to decode the difficult or unfamiliar parts. This study examines "experienced time pressure" in relation to the scientist's performance (measured by organization usefulness) and in relation to five characteristics of the scientist. Moreover, it considers the relation of performance to optimal time pressure, to the difference between experienced and optimal pressure, and to the span of pressures experienced during a typical month's work.

Data were collected at Time 1 from 117 scientists and engineers in a NASA research division. Time 2 data were collected five years later from 118 researchers, 78 of whom had participated at Time 1. Performance measures included innovation, productiveness, and usefulness which were assessed by four to eight judges familiar with scientists' work. Measures of time pressure included time pressure experienced and optimum time pressure. In addition, questionnaires solicited information about motivation, communication with colleagues, role of the technical supervisor, and attitudes toward work.

Results indicate that time pressure can enhance several qualities of scientific performance, including innovation. In addition to experiencing the most time pressure, the highest performing scientists also tended to want relatively large amounts of pressure. When pressure was either too low or too high, performance was likely to suffer, although excess pressure did not negatively affect organizational usefulness. Those scientists who experienced time pressures were also more integrated into the social processes of their laboratories.

Implications for management suggest that deadlines need not be feared as a negative influence on performance and indeed can increase performance levels. Limitations to the study include the fact that researchers did not encounter scientists who felt the pressure level was "too great" (levels were below and just above optimal) and that the study did not include information on the other effects of stresses such as physical or mental health.

Atchison, T.J., & Leffers, E.A. The prediction of turnover using Hertzberg's job satisfaction technique. Personnel Psychology, Spring, 1972, 25, 53-64.

This study addressed the following research questions: (1) Does today's dissatisfaction lead to tomorrow's turnover?, (2) Is turn-over related to general levels of job satisfaction?, and (3) Are there specific patterns of job dissatisfaction which are more likely to create turn-over than others?

Hertzberg's techniques for measuring job satisfaction were utilized. The study was a re-analysis of an earlier study performed by the Air Force, which sought to ascertain the causes of high turn-over. It did so by examining the intentions of officers at the time. The authors of this study replicated the previous investigation based on those officers who remained in and those who had since left the Air Force.

Measures of Hertzberg's motivation factors were converted to Likert scales; these clearly distinguished officers who remained in and those who left the Air Force. Hertzberg's positive events were a reflection of the decision to produce and motivate while the negative aspects or events were related to the decision to participate. The decision to participate depends upon forces which influence the perception of the inducements offered by the organization.

Axelrod, W.L. & Gavin, J.F. Stress and strain in blue-collar and white-collar management staff. Journal of Vocational Behavior, 1980, 17, 41-49.

Blue-collar and white-collar personnel in a mining organization were studied in order to determine variables that may moderate stress-strain relationships. It was assumed that management staff associated with actual mining operations would encounter task and social issues different from those encountered by workers who functioned in administrative and personnel work. Previous research varies on whether attitudinal differences exist between blue and white-collar workers. The model for this study included three variables: stress (the external factors the individual perceives to be acting upon himself/herself such as role conflict and responsibility to others); strain (the individual's reaction to stress such as dissatisfaction, anxiety, and depression); and moderator variables affecting the relationship between stress and strain.

Thirty-seven blue-collar and thirty-three white-collar managers of a medium-sized mining operation were administered self-report inventories which included stress items on role conflict, role ambiguity, job security, responsibility for others, quantitative work load, participation, job pressure, variation in work load, and utilization of skills. Strain items included anxiety-depression-irritation, psychosomatic symptoms, and work dissatisfaction.

The results indicate: 1) white-collar workers carrying a heavier work load have lower scores on the anxiety-depression-irritation scale; 2) among blue-collar managers there is a positive correlation between variation in work load and anxiety-depression-irritation; 3) job security has a high negative correlation with dissatisfaction for blue-collar managers; it is nonsignificant for white-collar managers; 4) white-collar managers express less dissatisfaction with higher amounts of work than blue-collar managers; 5) role conflict has a positive correlation with psychosomatic symptoms for white-collar managers; it is nonsignificant for blue-collar managers; and 6) white-collar managers appear to have a higher frequency of psychosomatic symptoms the less they are able to utilize their skills; this relationship is nonsignificant for blue-collar managers. The moderator analysis suggests that certain stresses (excluding utilization of skills) which influence particular strains for blue-collar managers do not have a similar impact on white-collar managers. These findings suggest the need for differential approaches to mental health in the work environment. These approaches should be considered in light of different work structures, training and development experiences, and selection and placement practices.

Baehr, E.A. & Renck, R. The definition and measurement of employee morale. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 1958, 3, 157-184.

The identification of five basic factors of morale in industrial employees was examined. The results were based on three separate research investigations and focused on defining morale, measuring morale, and improving morale. The instrument used was the Employee Inventory, which attempts to assess all the influences which affect workers on the job and the commonly shared ideas which employees have about themselves and their work environment.

The results are thought to represent basic attitudes in the industrial population that affect the morale of employees. Five factors representing these attitudes are brought to the attention of the reader. The first factor is organization and management. This involves the employee's relationship to management and the organization that management represents to him/her. The second factor of immediate supervision represents the attitude toward immediate supervision. Third is material rewards; these are the material rewards the employee receives from work. The fourth factor is friendliness and co-operation of fellow employees. This is defined as the ability to work together and workers' friendliness toward each other. The last factor, personal rewards, deals with job satisfaction and the belief that the job is worthwhile and has opportunity for personal growth and development (intrinsic values).

These represent some basic dimensions in morale structure as it relates to industrial society today. They can be used as core items for attitude survey questionnaires for certain types of employees. These factors appear to be relatively stable, defining basic dimensions of employee morale, and can be used for research or pragmatic purposes in a variety of organizations.

Baldwin, B.A. Management direction - It's all in your head. PACE, 1983, 10(4), 11-12; 14-15; 22.

Stress reactions to job pressures can include physical symptoms as well as feelings of confusion, anger, and escapism. Stress is the activation of neurological, physiological, and sensory systems to meet challenges (pressures). A certain level of stress can be healthy; excessive stress can be damaging to one's physical and emotional health.

How an individual handles pressure determines the magnitude of stress generated and whether it will have a positive or negative effect on one's ability to function. Kept at optimal levels, stress is a source of energy that helps one accomplish tasks. The following are signs that stress is being utilized in positive ways: one feels stimulated each day; accomplishments are a form of personal expression; one is in control from within; one seeks personal challenge; a positive outlook is maintained; failures are setbacks are handled constructively; and one knows how to get away from it all periodically.

A chronic stress syndrome is synonymous with career burnout. The following are signs characteristic of the professional who is burning out: chronic fatigue is experienced; thought processes are dulled; one is irritable; one progressively withdraws; one experiences physical symptoms; one's work is always with him/her; and one "wonders why".

There are several ways in which individuals unnecessarily create failure experiences for themselves; each contributes to the personal insecurity and doubt which may generate stress. They include habitually accepting more work than can be completed, creating and not meeting unrealistic personal deadlines, a desire to be number one in everything, and setting and not meeting perfectionist standards.

Incessant pressure on the job may make it difficult to maintain the skills necessary to prevent stress overload. The result is spread of stress, or the invasion of work-related stress into non-work areas of life.

Bartolome, F. & Evans, P.A.L. Must success cost so much? Harvard Business Review, 1980, 137-148.

This is a lengthy, comprehensive article examining the effects of stress on family life, personal life, and employment. Based on interviews and questionnaires with managers and executive couples it covers over a five year period. It was found that executives who have a successful work and private life are able to adapt well to change, are working in jobs that are suitable for them, and handle career disappointments well.

Executives were found to belong to two groups: one in which private lives deteriorate because of emotional spillover and the other in which a balance is achieved between private and professional lives. The findings indicated that for an ambitious person, a well-functioning professional life is a necessary though not sufficient condition for a well-functioning private one. Negative spillover was covered in detail in reference to its effect on family life. Work spills over into private life through fatigue and emotional tension (worry). Worrying is caused by frustration, self doubt, and unfinished business. The spillover from work can be exhibited through aggression or psychological absence.

The most common trigger of spillover tension is the process of settling into a new job. The challenges which accompany a new position overload the emotional systems. In order to avoid an extended spillover period it is important that managers assess the magnitude of the changes they ask of themselves and their families. If the spillover begins to overwhelm the situation it is possible that the situation is not proper for the family and the manager. Being "misfit" for a job causes tension and fear of failure to increase while causing doubts about work successfully done. A perfect fit occurs when an individual experiences three positive feelings at the same time: competence, enjoyment, and the coincidence of work and moral values. Ideally, one's job should fit skills, abilities, motives, and values.

Various types of "misfits" were described, each displaying a different characteristic. The total misfit has not fulfilled any of the conditions of competence, enjoyment or coinciding values. A competence misfit has an insecurity about his ability to master the work. An enjoyment misfit is not proud of his job though he performs well in it. When an individual is not proud of his work and feels his values have been compromised he becomes a moral misfit. This individual fears potential legal consequences, and he cannot vent his feelings by expressing them to others because the position dictates secrecy.

Also examined are the reasons why people take the wrong job. Four major reasons are: strong attraction of external rewards, organizational pressure, inability to say no, and lack of self-assessment. People often take a job for the money and status it offers, believing it will allow them to have a fulfilling family life. The pressure placed on a person when offered a job by management is great. It leads to confusion as to whether to accept the job or to think about it for a few days. Those that take time to consider a new position have an understanding of themselves and their families. Many people do not understand the consequences of refusing a job offer. The effect of a refusal has to be considered realistically for the effects of spillover. This ability to assess consequences realistically is a characteristic of a highly successful person. If an individual learns from experience and is able to manage his career he will be able to avoid the third cause of spillover - career disappointment.

To reduce the impact of disappointment two suggestions are given. One concerns the ability to become intimately acquainted with one's own emotional reactions and the other relates to the capacity to face a disappointment squarely. It is important that the disappointment is not manifested as depression or withdrawal.

The study recommends four actions managers can take to reduce work pressure. The first is to broaden organizational values. Effective managers are able to balance their private lives with their work. They do not have a blind commitment to the company and its policies. Their work gives them satisfaction and personal rewards. The second suggestion is to create multiple reward and career ladders. Instead of having a one-dimensional hierarchy where everyone follows the same rungs to achieve a desired position in the company, it is recommended to use career anchors. These allow managers to utilize their best skills in the position for which they are most talented. The anchors include: managerial, technical, creative, security, and autonomy. The third recommendation is to give realistic performance appraisals. This self-assessment process should focus on enjoyment of the job as well as skills and competence. Fourth is reduction of organizational uncertainty. A manager does this by protecting employees from events over which they have no control.

The study concludes by stating that although it is necessary to separate private and professional life, it is often difficult. Managers need to balance the two to avoid negative spillover and perform job duties effectively. Emphasized also is realistic self-assessment for a balanced lifestyle.

Beehr, T.A., Walsh, J.T. & Taber, T.D. Relationships of stress to individually and organizationally valued states: Higher order needs as a moderator. Journal of Applied Psychology, 1976, 61(1), 41-47.

Work motivation is valued highly by an organization because it is assumed to be an important component in effective job performance. The present study employs three specific measures of organizationally valued states: effort to do a large quantity of work, effort to do a high quality of work, and job involvement. Subjects were 79 male and 64 female members of a white collar union employed in drafting, mechanical, and technical/clerical jobs in a large midwestern manufacturing firm. The sample age averaged 34 with a median income of $9,400.

Motivation is seen as a multiplicative function of the expectancy that performance leads to expected outcomes. Role overload might increase the motivation to work if the work load is perceived as a challenge, because challenging work increases the intrinsic rewards gained from successful performance. Role ambiguity reduces motivation to work by reducing the expectation that effort leads to performance or the expectation that performance leads to a valued outcome. Nonparticipation is predicted to be negatively related to motivation because it lessens the feeling of responsibility for the success of the work, therefore reducing the intrinsic value of successful performance.

The concept of higher order needs is derived from Maslow's hierarchy of needs. People with strong higher order needs are likely to gain more satisfaction from performance of challenging tasks than are people with low levels of higher order needs. Relationships between variety, autonomy, task feedback, task identity, and several aspects of motivation were frequently moderated by higher order need strength. This moderating effect was particularly strong for job involvement, and less strong for quality and quantity of work.

Jobs that have ambiguous demands, too many demands, or that do not allow the employee to participate in work related decisions are likely to hinder attempts at successful performance, frustrating higher order needs.

Benashel, J.G. Turning stress into a constructive force. International Management, 1977, 32, 37-38.

Stress has lately become the villian of management literature, related to everything from premature heart attacks to corporation collapse. While there is evidence that stress can be harmful, there is also growing scientific evidence that stress can be stimulating and can contribute to job productivity.

A Canadian study confirms that a number of commonly recognized stressors at work lead to job dissatisfaction. But the research also suggests ways in which these stresses can be eliminated or reduced. Some of the causes of stress and some of the ways to reduce it are examined by the study. The stress is: too little job authority and responsibility. The solution is: the senior executive should examine the job responsibility of subordinates to satisfy himself that they are making a satisfactory contribution to the organization.

The key to what makes stress positive is the degree of control the individual exercises over his situation. Whatever the problem, lack of control becomes a source of frustration. However, any challenge can become a source of satisfaction if the employee can directly affect the outcome by his own individual efforts. The finding strongly supports the idea of decentralized management and a high degree of delegation.

The task is to identify the prime source of constructive stress. An individual is helped to cope if he feels that the organization is supporting him closely. This should be a primary aim of management. Administration should not concentrate solely on eliminating pressures. It should, in fact, facilitate work and support the employee so that he can face whatever pressures confront him .

Benashel, J.G. Taking heat out of a tense situation. International Management, 1977, 32, 31-32.

One of the major characteristics of tense situations is that everyone involved in them has a heightened sensitivity, a reduced degree of objectivity, and a limited perspective. It is not very productive to try and resolve the actual issue at the time that tempers are high. A better approach would be to make it the central objective to defuse the situation.

In a tense situation, it is often a difficult task to try and calm things down, especially when you yourself feel far from calm. But it can be done, if one follows the ten suggested guidelines outlined in this article. It must be realized that these guidelines are short-term measures; later, when emotions have cooled off, one will have to deal directly with the issues involved. To do this one needs to explore his/her own feelings and goals, possible strategies, and potential weak spots, as well as those of the other person. One also needs to look at the situation as objectively as possible, making oneself the impartial arbiter of the issue.

The best way to avoid having to deal with tense situations is to learn how not to participate in their creation. One person can seldom create interpersonal friction all alone. The more regularly one works toward inner balance, the less likely one will be to either create tense situations, or to add fuel to them once someone else starts flaring up. Once a person is refreshed, calm and balanced, he will be able to recognize how people sense this difference and respond appropriately to the situation.

Benson, H. Your innate assets for combating stress, Harvard Business Review, July/August, 1974, 49-60.

The stress and tension present today account for a range of illnesses from general weakness to heart attacks. This stress is present especially in the business world where a fast paced life and increased pressure seem to be the primary mode of operation. In order to counteract the negative effects of this pressure, the author presents a stress alleviator which he terms the "relaxation response". One type of relaxation, transcendental meditation (TM), causes physiological changes which include a slower heart rate, slower metabolism and slower breathing rate.

The basic "relaxation response" has four elements. The first is a quiet environment, without sound if possible. Second is the use of a mental device, a word or phrase which is repeated in order to focus on the device rather than anything else. The third element is a passive attitude and the fourth, a comfortable position.

A study is cited in which people with high blood pressure were taught the relaxation response and the result was a significant decrease in blood pressure during the day even when the meditation or relaxation was not immediately occurring. However, when the person failed to do the relaxation twice daily, the earlier levels of blood pressure returned. The suggestion was to combine relaxation with meditation for a synergistic effect.

Another use of stress reduction using relaxation might be with cigarette smokers and alcohol and drug abusers, since these are people who cope with stress in currently unhealthful ways. Generally, with two sessions a day of stress reduction, there are no side effects.

People who spend several hours a day in meditation might exhibit different kinds of withdrawal from life, although it is not known if these individuals already have preexisting conditions which draw them to meditation.

A suggestion for the business community would be to offer employees a relaxation break instead of a coffee break. This is thought to improve the employees' abilities to deal with stress and to improve their sense of self.

There is an appendix to the article detailing the various forms of meditation in Christianity, Judaism, Hinduism and other religions which offer meditory experiences.

Benson, H. A simple cost-free and comfortable way to combat job tension. Nation's Business, December 1976, 64, 29-36.

Dr. Herbert Benson and his associates have developed a method which results in a "relaxation response" from the body. This response has been found to reduce blood pressure and metabolism. It also has helped people to smoke or drink less than they normally do.

The relaxation response was developed to counter the effects of tension and stress. During periods of stress the body releases more adrenaline, increases blood pressure and metabolism, increases the flow of blood into the muscles, raises the heartbeat rate, and increases sweating. Indications of tension are irritability, displeasure with others, depression about work, and headaches or an upset stomach.

Location, personality, and employment were all given as possible causes of tension. The work place is thought to cause tension because it may be associated with failure, excessive worry or personality clashes. Location was a probable cause if the environment was too noisy or lacked enough stimulation. Personality could contribute to tension if the individual is indecisive, easily overwhelmed, or not able to cope with daily activities.

To perform the relaxation response the individual follows these activities two to three times a day for ten to twenty minutes in a place without distractions. First, a quiet, comfortable area is selected where one can sit upright. Second, a word, phrase, or prayer is repeated, silently to oneself. Third, a passive attitude is maintained while repeating the word, prayer, or phrase. Fourth, the eyes are shut but the individual should not lose consciousness. Dr. Benson believes that regular use of the relaxation response will lead to a healthier, more relaxed and more productive employee.

Bernardin, H.J. The relationship of personality variables to organizational withdrawal. Personnel Psychology, 1977, 30, 17-27.

Bernardin begins the article with a review of the relevant research literature on personality factors and employees who withdraw from organizations. Porter and Steers stated that individuals who withdraw from organizations manifest personality traits that are extreme, i.e., that tend to be at either end of specific trait continua. Examples of these traits include: emotional instability, anxiety, achievement orientation, aggression, independence, self-confidence, and sociability. This tendency to be at either end of the trait continua has been used to support a "polar" hypothesis of organizational withdrawal.

Numerous limitations in the research of this topic were presented. They include:

a) Only one aspect of organizational withdrawal is usually investigated in these studies--either tenure, turnover, or absenteeism;

b) Numerous personality measures have been used in these studies, many of which do not have well-established validity or reliability; and

c) No cross-validation studies have been performed to assess shrinkage and generalizability of results.

The purpose of this study was to examine the "polar" hypothesis using a well-established personality measure (16 PF) and to assess withdrawal by examining both turnover and absenteeism.

The potential participants of the study included 150 male workers at two different plants. From this population of workers, 109 usuable questionnaires were returned. Absenteeism and turnover data were collected for six months before statistical analyses were conducted. Statistical treatment of the data included multivariate analysis of personality factors and turnover; "polar" hypothesis testing of turnover and absenteeism rates; correlations of personality variables with absenteeism; and canonical correlation of 16PF and withdrawal measures.

The major results of these analyses indicated that organizational withdrawal is predictable from personality characteristics. There were significant differences in terminators and non-terminators after controlling for pay rate differences. A similar, although smaller, significant result was also found for the turnover variable. The Porter and Steers "polar" hypothesis, for the most part, was not supported by this study. Only high extreme anxiety scores were significantly related to differences in the turnover variable. Absenteeism and tenure were negatively correlated, suggesting that as absenteeism increases, tenure tends to decrease. Finally, an investigation of the vector weights from the canonical correlation indicated that the traits of conscienciousness and anxiety appear to correlate with absenteeism and turnover. Based on these results, Bernardin speculates that an individual displaying high anxiety and low conscienciousness will probably have difficulty with respect to absenteeism and turnover.

Blalack, R.A. & Davis, H.J. Job strain and satisfaction among unit managers. Hospital Topics, 55,(1), Jan/Feb., 1977, 30-35.

During the last fifteen years there has been an increase in the number of non-medical staff carrying out duties normally assigned to nurses. By relieving nurses from administrative tasks, they can spend more time in direct care of patients. Job titles and supervisory responsibilities of these jobs are varied.

Supervision is performed by nurses who are accountable for the actions of the staff. Other organizations place responsibility for supervision in the hands of other administrative staff. Since the supervisor assumes complete responsibility for administrative and clerical duties, there must be a significant amount of communication between hospital department heads and nursing staff.

This situation has often been characterized by low morale and high turnover rates. Exploration of this phenomenon was the purpose of this study. Twenty-nine unit managers were surveyed in a large teaching-referral hospital in the southeast. Job role ambiguity has previously been found to be positively related to job tension and negatively related to job satisfaction.

The role ambiguity index used was developed and adapted from an instrument to study the wages and salaries of workers in the manufacturing sector. The index had five questions with four possible responses. The inter-item correlations for the questions were all positive with a median correlation of .41. The Spearman-Brown split-half internal-consistency reliability cooefficient was .87.

All of the relationships were found to be consistent with the findings of other studies relating lack of role clarity to increased levels of job tension and anxiety, and to decreases in job satisfaction.

Twenty of the 29 people surveyed were women. They were typically college graduates with over half having received degrees in arts and sciences. Over 3/4 of this group had been in their present position three years or less. The survey found that many of this group are experiencing a high level of role ambiguity in their job. This finding was independent of any demographic differences. Males in this survey seemed to experience less tension than females because they perceived themselves to have greater job opportunities.

Boxx, W.R. & Chambless, J.R. Preventive health maintenance for executives. California Management Review, Fall, 1975, 49-56.

Managers agree that performing maintenance work in anticipation of need minimizes the possibility of unanticipated production interruptions or major breakdowns. Increased mechanization and complex automated production systems have stimulated the interest in maintenance programs. Just as managers understand the need to keep the physical plant in order, they also realize the benefits of maintaining the health of the workers. Benefits include improved workmanship and quality of production, reduced accidents, decreased "down" time, and increased morale. Cost reduction can be realized through improved worker mental and physical health.

Total physical and human maintenance is essential for a firm's long-term effectiveness. The authors provide theoretical foundations underlying preventive maintenance programs for physical and human assets (e.g., just as physical equipment should not be overloaded, neither should human assets be overloaded). Although more and more firms are recognizing the health maintenance needs of "operative" employees, the needs of executives are often neglected. Attention should be paid to gradual change in the executive's behavior and physical condition. Hypokinetic diseases (degenerative sedentary diseases occurring as a result of physical inactivity) are considered as one of the greatest "robbers" of executive energy. Heart and circulatory diseases and obesity dangerously affect workers' health as well as a firm's effectiveness. Even though one's weight may fall within standardized weight tables, one can still be overweight. A formula is provided to determine excess body fat.

Cardiorespiratory endurance is an essential component of physical fitness. An individual must have at least a minimal level of cardiorespiratory endurance to participate in a functional and meaningful life-style. It is recommended that food consumption patterns and activity habits be evaluated and moderated accordingly. The Ohio State University Step Test is a reliable and valid measure of cardiorespiratory fitness.

Researchers have found that overweight people have significantly lower salaries than lean people. In addition, physically fit bodies promote mental alertness and thus, executive productivity.

Brief, A.P. How to manage managerial stress. Personnel, 1980, 57(5), 25-30.

It is a known fact that managers experience significant stress on the job. They are required to work with various personalities associated with their superiors and subordinates on the job. In addition, they must maintain contact with peers outside of the job. All of these demands that managers must face are typically in conflict with each other. This further complicates the situation, adding to a manager's unavoidable stress.

To deal with stress effectively, it is imperative that a manager know the source of the problem. The manager has to deal with high volumes of work and disjointed work loads which make his job stressful physically and psychologically. Evidence indicates that low levels of stress are related to higher levels of performance. Managerial stress is an organizational fact of life; nevertheless, it must be dealt with.

Two of the major causes of stress experienced by managers are role conflict and role ambiguity. Role conflict is experienced when managers are required to be involved in activities that are not in accordance with their own expectations or when competing demands are placed on their time and energy. Both situations are taxing if not dealt with properly.

When the sources of stress are identified they must be managed. To cope with stress, sound managerial practices must be implemented. Three of the most crucial practices that will assist the manager in dealing with stress are implementation of a goal-setting program, a viable performance apprisal system, and a formalized reward system. All of these serve to reduce role ambiguity. However, these practices are not always sufficient. In this case, an alternative program needs to be considered.

As an alternative method to manage stress, managers can implement the management process program. This program involves a three-stage process yielding formulation of role description, designation of counselors, and specification of consequences. This process is also designed to reduce managerial stress.

Stress is a part of the manager's work. It cannot be avoided. Nevertheless, it can and should be dealt with appropriately.

Briscoe, D.R. Learning to handle stress - A matter of time and training. Supervisory Management. February 1980, 35-38.

This article describes a training model to teach managers to cope with the stresses of their roles. Managers can learn or be trained to cope with on-the-job stress by using the SAID (Specific Adaptation to Imposed Demands) principle. The first concept of this principle states that the training demands must be specific to obtain the desired results and requires that the training be designed to increase the individual's ability to manage. Cross-functional job assignments or providing practice in specific behaviors can give the individual a broader perspective and the ability to manage through other people.

The second concept is magnitude of training. In order for one to realize maximum training effects, the imposed demands must be of a magnitude large enough to force adaptation or learning. Job assignments must provide "stretch" to produce new coping mechanisms, new skills, and enhanced self-esteem. Too few demands on current skills will not produce development, but if the demands are too great for too long or if effective new coping processes are not learned, burn-out or exhaustion will set in. This stage is evidenced by acute depression, extreme passivity, incapacitating physical illness, or apathy, resignation, lack of involvement, a feeling of futility or disorganization.

The third concept is a gradual and continual intensification of training. To be effective the demands must be gradually and continually intensified over an extended period of time with new levels of learning and adaptation building on prior levels - the progressive overload principle. Managers will develop increasing adaptation and coping.

This principle can be shortchanged by pushing the development process too fast; the training policy therefore suggests that stress overload should never exceed 10-15 percent "stretch" for optimum learning.

The major thrust of these principles is that as managers go through training or make career moves to higher levels of management, each training assignment or job must build on previously developed abilities in order for managers to learn to handle high levels of demands on their abilities.

Brock, A. Mental stress at work. The Practitioner, April, 1973, 210, 500-506.

Work satisfaction is most essential to one's mental health. The article concerns itself with the clinical problems that might manifest themselves as a result of unhappiness on the job.

When an individual is meeting his interests and fulfilling his personal needs through the full use of his capacities and skills on the job, he can maintain a realistic, secure sense of well-being. In addition, most people seem to get gratification only from the money they are paid for working. But pay grievances are usually "pegs on which to hang other grievances".

The present article illustrates some stress disorders (involving medical services) which were precipitated by the work situation.

Cases 1, 2, and 3 deal with the stress brought on by being over-promoted to jobs in which the person has reached the peak of his abilities so that there is no possibility of his developing further. In the first case, the individual believed that if the doctor could make him well (even though in the doctor's opinion the man was functioning well physically), he could perform his job better. In fact his present new managerial role was beyond his resources but the stress disorder had developed from minor psychological symptoms to a marked psychosomatic complaint and thence to a mental illness. This had also put strain on his junior partners. Case 2 and 3 were similar in the detrimental demands that the job stress placed on the managers.

In contrast, under promotion can also create a stress disorder within an individual. Case 4 describes a woman of forty, who no longer felt challenged by her work, was having problems in developing relationships with men, and who was beginning to complain of severe colds and other ailments. Since work was an important part of her life, she decided it was necessary to talk to her doctor about her condition. Subsequently, she was able to change jobs in the organization and thus she acquired a new sense of work satisfaction and improved physical health.

Case 5 discusses an individual who was being treated unfairly at work. This case suggested that how management views a breakdown from stress in a worker, caused by some change they introduce varies, with some management personnel feeling responsible, and others not feeling responsible for what happens to an individual employee.

It appears that stress disorders can be either acute (develop in a few weeks or even days) or chronic reactions (develop after a year or 18 months). There are generally three stages: 1) preventive stage - responsibility rests with management in terms of technical, financial, or other aspects of employee satisfaction; 2) morale may be dropping, general uneasiness; 3) clear-cut symptoms of stress. A doctor is generally involved at the third stage.

The doctor has a difficult task in dealing with work-related problems. The doctor might assist the patient by being understanding and supportive, which in turn can help the patient gain insight into his own problems. In addition, the doctor can help by bringing the problem into the open, thus facilitating an assessment of the interaction of the patient and his working environment.

Burke, R.J. Are you fed up with work? Personnel Administration, Jan/Feb., 1971, 34(1), 27-31.

Tensions and anxieties are common occurrences in the daily job life of most individuals. Most of the literature offers "how to" proposals in handling job tensions which mainly call for the individual to try harder. This study examines some of the methods that middle-level supervisors of engineering personnel have found useful in managing their own job tensions as well as those of their spouses.

A paper and pencil questionnaire dealing with the relationship between job pressure and employee feelings of tension and anxiety, as well as various methods for coping with job tension was administered to each individual group member attending a series of management seminars. Questionnaires were received from 43 supervisors employed in an engineering department of a corporation with divisions throughout the United States. All respondents were from one division and were middle-level supervisors of engineering personnel (second and third line). All were married and about 80 percent had children. The information was offered anonymously by respondents and the return rate was 100 percent. An example of the type of question asked was "Our jobs occasionally demand a good deal from each of us whether we are working in the plant, the office, or the home. What ways have you personally found useful in handling the tensions and pressures of your job? (Give specific examples of what you do.)".

All 43 supervisors indicated that they had some way to cope with stress. There were a wide-range of mechanisms being used. One of the most common was to do some systematic problem-solving directed at the source of tensions. Others involved changing to some other type of activity, such as engaging in physical activity. Six of the supervisors indicated that being alone was useful for their emotional well-being. However, an equal number worked even harder when job tensions mounted. Only a few discussed their problems with others such as wives or associates on the job. The data suggested that the supervisors had a fair amount of understanding of themselves and of how to manage the feelings of tensions arising from their jobs.

Supervisors helped their spouses by getting their wives to talk. A large number of men tried to reduce the number of forces acting on their spouses. Others tried to be supportive and loving of their wives. It was also common for the men to try and change the forces acting on their wives by removing them from a situation, modifying the focus of attention, or adding a new force such as arguing (not very supportive).

Another common response was for the husband to be quiet and leave the wife alone. Overall, the typical pattern was to get the spouse to talk, assess what she felt was bothering her, and then intervene in any number of ways to assist her.

The vast majority of supervisors in the sample handled their tensions on their own. Yet, these men did attempt to provide valuable assistance to their wives. It should be noted that the supervisor's degree of helpfulness was partly determined by his own tension level.

Burke, R.J. Occupational stresses and job satisfaction. Journal of Social Psychology, 1976, 100(2), 235-244.

A study was conducted of 228 professional males, all of whom were engineers or accountants, to determine if sources of occupational stress were directly related to job satisfaction. Contrary to the hypothesis, some types of occupational stress are positively related to job satisfaction. Current theory proposes that stresses such as role conflict, role ambiguity, and role overload cause an individual to perform his job less effectively. A study by Hall and Lawler demonstrated that some pressures or stresses on the other hand, may have a positive effect on employee performance. Three types of pressure; time, quality, and financial responsibility were found to impact on individual satisfaction and involvement and organizational performance. The pressure of financial responsibility was found to offer an employee a sense of freedom and control within the organization.

Results of this study reported occupational stress to be most prevalent in: a) not being able to get needed information, b) slow job progress, and c) too heavy a workload. Lesser amounts of occupational stress were associated with: a) not feeling qualified to handle a job, b) concern that someone else might get the higher position sought, and c) too much responsibility. Job satisfaction was reported as greater where there was opportunity for: a) advancing in administrative authority and status, b) advancing in professional respect of colleagues and supervisors, and c) growing and learning new knowledge and skills. The factors which generated the greatest opportunity for job satisfaction were: a) having congenial co-workers as colleagues, b) working on difficult and challenging problems, and c) doing a variety of tasks and activities. The largest positive correlations between occupational stress items and job satisfaction items were: a) too little job authority and responsibility and little freedom to use own ideas, b) unclear about job duties, c) unclear about professional opportunities, d) job security, and 3) don't know where I stand with my boss. The more an individual experienced overall job satisfaction, the greater his satisfaction with specific job aspects, including having challenging job problems, using present knowledge and skills, having work that is important and having congenial co-workers.

The study concluded that many occupational stresses/pressures are dysfunctional and undesirable, such as lack of organizational support for a person on a job and a sense of powerlessness or control over the work situation. These factors adversely affected employee efficiency. Positive occupational stresses are associated with a challenging job/ high organizational expectations and ability to meet demands of the task. Employment positions that are enriched may lead to increased satisfaction as well as job pressures. An employee who voluntarily takes on increased job demands/pressures usually works harder toward higher goals and derives greater satisfaction from the work experience. It would be in everyone's best interest to augment those pressures that facilitate individual satisfaction and growth and organizational effectiveness.

Burke, R.J. & Belcourt, M.L. Managerial role stress and coping responses. Journal of Business Administration, 1974,5, 55-68

Research has indicated a connection between role conflict, ambiguity, overload, and behavior; however, it has usually addressed the antecedents and consequences rather than the adaptations to these conflicts. In this study, specific situations of stress were related to particular coping behaviors.

One hundred and thirty-seven middle managers employed by the Federal Government of Canada were administered a short questionnaire with items on occupational stress (work overload, too much responsibility, decision-making affecting others), coping response (how individuals effectively or ineffectively dealt with a stressful situation), and demographic information (including length of time on job and education). Role ambiguity (Factor I) and role overload (Factor II) were extracted through factor analysis of the occupation stress item responses. Demographic characteristics associated with each factor both separately and combined are listed. Demographic correlates of occupational stress include the findings that respondents under age 25 reported more stress than other age levels, bilinguals reported more stress than non-bilinguals, the initial six months of service is less stressful than later periods, and respondents in the middle income group ($12,000-$15,000) reported the least amount of stress.

The most common, effective coping response listed was talking with others, followed by analyzing the situation and changing strategy. The most common ineffective coping response was doing nothing. The preference of coping response differs for different age levels, by sex, and by education level.

Role stress situations were related to the various coping responses in the following ways. Having too much work stress was effectively reduced by analyzing the situation and changing strategy. Job performance pressure was effectively dealt with also by analyzing the situation and changing strategy. Stress arising from an inability to influence supervisors' decisions was effectively coped with by talking with others. Having too much work was ineffectively coped with by talking to others. Job performance pressure was ineffectively coped with by aggressing and ventilating one's feelings. Stress from an inability to influence a supervisor's decision was ineffectively coped with by doing nothing.

Burke, R.J., & McGratten, C. Husband-wife compatibility and the management of stress. Journal of Social Psychology, 1974, 94, 243-252.

Research has shown that greater compatibility between husband and wife is associated with increased marital stability, adjustment, and satisfaction, and thus more successful marriage relationships. The focus of this study is on variables related to effective or successful management of stress or tension (a mental hygiene function) which married individuals can provide for one another. In addition, selected aspects of the process thought to be part of the mental hygiene function are examined.

Previous studies have indicated that husbands often act in some way to cope with their own tension and stresses, employing a wide range of techniques, but that only a few discussed their job problems with their wives or associates on the job. In spite of using numerous techniques with themselves to reduce stress, the typical husband showed more uniformity in dealing with the anxiety of his wife. Wives, in general, performed a narrower range of helping activities than did their husbands.

Subjects in this study were married husband-wife pairs in which the husband worked full-time as a professional engineer, industrial accountant, or chartered accountant. Each husband and wife completed a questionnaire which included measures from the Fundamental Interpersonal Relations Orientation inventory. The fundamental interpersonal dimensions of the FIRO-B are inclusion (need to establish a satisfactory relationship with people with respect to interaction and association), control (need to establish a satisfactory relationship with people with respect to control and power), and affection (need to establish a relationship with people with respect to love and affection). Two aspects of each behavior are assessed: the individual's expressed behavior and the behavior desired from others. In addition, eight measures of compatibility were developed including reciprocal compatibility, interchange compatibility, and originator compatibility. Finally, management of stress was measured by examining pair values after combining the husband and wife's scores from various parts of the questionnaire.

The results indicated few occupational differences. Husband-wife compatibility as measured by the FIRO-B was not strongly related to measures of stress management. Therefore, the relationship between marital compatibility and the management of stress is of little practical importance, contradicting the background literature provided.

Burke, R.J., & Weir, T. Giving and receiving help with work and non-work related problems. Journal of Business Administration, Spring, 1975, 6(2), 59-78.

Two areas in which helping takes place are between marital partners in a family unit and in the day-to-day relationships of co-workers. Husbands are less effective in dealing with their wives' problems than vice-versa. Wives and managers undertake activities to help themselves cope with stress. Informal helping between staff and management is useful in dealing with job obsolescence and in increasing knowledge of job skills by combining strengths. Helping processes lie at the heart of individual attempts to deal with career crises and the experiences of personal loss in organizations. Informal helping within organizations is expected to play a larger part in the future in helping people deal with problems effectively.

The study here deals with giving and receiving help and examines the following issues: 1) Who do people turn to for help in the community?, 2) Why do they choose a particular person?, 3) How often do men and women play the role of the helper?, and 4) What useful characteristics do helpers see in themselves?

The study sampled 250 males and 214 females. The males belonged to three groups: 1) professional engineers, 2) industrial accountants, and 3) chartered accounts. The women were their wives and thirty of them were employed full-time.

Men chose their wives as helpers 42% of the time. They chose superiors at work 26% of the time. Their wives chose helpers within their work setting (if they did work) 35% of the time. If they did not work they chose a member of their family 58% of the time.

Burke, R.J. & Weir, T. Organizational climate and informal helping relationships in work settings. Journal of Management, 1978, 4(2), 91-105.

The organizational climate of a work setting is a variable with many characteristics. This climate dictates "what behaviors are rewarded, endorsed, supported, and expected by (the) organization". The behavior examined here is informal helping and its effect on interpersonal interactions aimed at reducing stress. The major hypothesis presumes that "aspects of organizational climate may contain not only the sources of individual strain reactions, but also the mechanisms for moderating stress-strain relationships and buffering individuals from the potentially adverse consequences of experiences stress".

The population studied consisted mostly of individuals with managerial or supervisory positions. Of the 71 individuals 90% were male, 87% were married, the average income was between $18,000 and $20,000, average age was between 35 and 39, and the organizational tenure averaged between 5 and 10 years. Nearly half of the respondents had a minimum of a four year college degree. The measure used in this study to categorize organizational climates resulted in the following types: exploitative-authoritative, benevolent-authoritative, consultative, and participative. These describe a type of management system. The factors important for their impact on interpersonal functioning are leadership, motivation, and superior-subordinate communication practices. Other variables which are important in addition to the former include "openness to and experimenting with ideas and feelings; owning; and helping others to do the same". A third set of measures consisted of "statements representing organizational values, beliefs, and norms". These measures were categorized into the following: authentic relationships, minimizing negative feelings, task orientation, and rational orientation.

Results of the study indicated that the climate of an organization, in part, determines the "interpersonal process of informal helping". Individuals who feel comfortable within an organization are more willing to help others and their helping is more effective or of greater value. The nature of the organizational climate was especially relevant to the disclosure and sharing of personal problems between oneself and one's supervisors or subordinates. The study also indicated that persons who tend to help the most are of equal or higher status than the individual being helped. It was also found that most problems discussed at work were work-related. An environment where employees feel comfortable and are able to acquire help results in a work environment that creates desirable employee behavior and a cohesive work environment/climate.

Burke, R.J. & Weir, T. The type A experience: Occupational and life
demands, satisfaction and well being. Journal of Human Stress,
Dec. 6, 1980, (4), 28-38.

An important series of studies has strongly implicated the Type A pattern in the pathogenesis of coronary heart disease independent of standard risk factors such as age, hypertension, diet, and heredity generally associated with the condition. Research evidence indicates that the risk of heart attack in Type A individuals is twice as great as that of non-A or Type B's in the population.

The Type A pattern is more prevalent in urban rather than rural communities, which leads to the speculatation that value and reward systems of our society (particularly those of institutions and organizations) play a significant role in promoting the expression of Type A behavior in susceptible individuals.

Certain identifying factors of the Type A pattern are an exaggerated expression of achievement striving, a strong sense of time urgency and competitiveness, and an aggressive style. The Type A worker is described as an unrelenting worker, dominated by the success ethic, ambitious to outperform others, and to constantly better his/her productivity. A psychological vigilence, hurried and restless movements, polyphasic behaviors and overtones of free-floating hostility are part of the pattern.

Some preliminary finding support the view that Type A's exist and function under conditions of greater stress. In work settings, the Type A behavior pattern has been associated with increased occupational demands such as role overload, longer working hours, more travel related work, greater responsibility for people, greater role conflict, and heavier work loads.

The purpose of this study was to examine empirically the speculation that Type A behavior may be associated with increased stress in the work and non-work lives of the individuals. It also investigated how Type A behavior relates to the work-family interaction and several areas of personal satisfaction. Finally, it considered whether Type A behavior was related to certain life styles and physiological health risks, as well as to measures of psychological and physical ill health.

Respondents were drawn from the three most senior administrative positions of correctional institutions in one Canadian province. There were 150 individuals under examination. The response rate to the survey was 85%. The subjects' ages ranged from 25 to over 60. Education ranged from the 9th grade to masters level; length of time married ranged from six months to over 30 years; number of children ranged from 0 to 8.

Burke, R.J., Weir, T. & Duncan G. Informal helping relationships in work organizations. Academy of Management Journal, 1976, 19(3), 370-377.

An individual's work situation is a fertile place for the appearance of stressful experiences. Research has indicated that work relationships may have an important role to play in helping individuals mitigate or resolve their stress experiences. The current study attends to the helping relationships which arise in work situations and identifies characteristics and processes which might assist individuals in their efforts to cope with stress.

The study surveyed 53 managers, mostly male (96%), married (77%), and under 35 years of age (83%), who were in the early stages of their work careers. Fifty-three percent of the respondents were within their present organization three years or less, and 42 percent were in their present job one year or less.

A ten page questionnaire was distributed to the managers which dealt primarily with the informal helping relationship experiences that they had been exposed to in work settings. Data from three specific types of questions were considered with regards to attitudes and behaviors related to helping interactions at work. For example, question one asked subjects to list what kinds of problems they felt most comfortable and least comfortable with in helping their co-workers. The second question asked subjects to describe a recent helping interaction with a co-worker in which they were in the helper's role, indicating the sex, age, and status of the helpee; how the interaction was initiated; where and when the interaction took place; the nature of the difficulty or problem as it was presented by the helpee; their personal feelings about helping the helpee with his problems; what perceived self-characteristic placed them in the helper's role in this situation; what they did in an attempt to be helpful; how satisfied they were with their helping efforts; and what was the effect of the interaction on the problem as they perceived it. The third question asked subjects to describe a recent interaction with an individual in their work situation in which they were in the helpee's role.

It appears that informal helping relationships do develop in organizations and that co-workers interact around a wide variety of work and non-work related problems. Information from the respondents was similar in terms of the perspective of both the helper and helpee.

In general, six features appeared to characterize helping interactions in work organizations: 1) co-workers were more likely to deal with more objective issues and events than with emotional problems or personal relationship problems; 2) the helpee must be willing to initiate an expression of the problem before a co-worker will attempt some intervention; 3) help is generally asked of co-workers of equal or greater status, and from those who are the same sex and age; 4) most helping interactions are restricted to formal working hours and within the confines of the office; 5) three-fourths of the helper's helping activities were task-centered and directive, stressing action; and 6) there was wide agreement as to what the "realities" of helping situations and interactions were as reported by respondents in the roles of helpers and helpees.

It appears that the resource value of the co-worker was restricted in the sense that the helping activity itself was more problem-centered than person-centered, i.e., there appeared to be a lack of appreciation for the usefulness of empathy, support, and the nondirective approach.

The findings suggest that current research should examine: 1) organizational climate and the helping relationship, and 2) the extent and kind of helping that occurs at work, and its impact on individual health and well-being.

Business Week. Executive guide to living with stress. August 23, 1976, 75-80.

Executives are realizing that excessive stress and the inability to excape from it may result in hypertension, ulcers, cardiac problems, headaches and insomnia.

Executives are striving for greater relaxation and personal fulfillment through such methods as transcendental meditation, transactional analysis, behavior modification, biofeedback and yoga, all of which use the mind over matter approach of psychology.

The first solution is to break the pattern of tension, whether it be through meditation, physical exercise, or group therapy. Simply learning how to unwind and have more real fun for the sake of fun itself is needed.

Many experts agree that transcendental meditation is a useful stress-reducing method, it is often helpful for people looking for relaxation. Transcendental meditation is a simplification of yoga; it allow unconscious processes to come to the surface which tends to clear the mind of fears and anxieties. Many companies today are now paying 40% of $125.00 course fee for any interested employee.

Transactional analysis is accepted today as a form of group therapy to achieve freedom from undue stress and emotional hangups. The object of transactional analysis is the "I'm O.K. - Your're O.K." feeling toward the self and others. It is based on three elements of personality within every individual: parent, child, and adult. Several large companies have recently sponsored transactional analysis groups for their executives.

Biofeedback uses electronic signals to show the patient how their vital bodily functions are operating, depending on the degree of stress the individual is under at the time. By testing various physical responses against the signals, one may find a way to modify the stress. Biofeedback can help an individual learn deep relaxation.

Behavior modification is a retraining technique that aims at ridding people of excessive stress reactions, fears, and anxieties. Any habit or practice that has been learned can be unlearned, through retraining.

Physical exercise, from rigid yoga routines to jogging, can provide release from tension and stress. Physical exercise and deep breathing techniques are mental relaxers. Jogging not only reduces tension but also lowers heart rate and blood pressure.

Cameron, C. Fatigue problems in modern industry. Ergonomics, 1971, 14(6), 713-720.

The main factors associated with fatigue in aircrews as well as indications of their significance for other branches of industry are examined. The fatigue problem was brought to the attention of the authorities by the aircrews themselves, which makes this study unique. Often fatigue was artifically induced in the lab. Because it was, subjects often made an extra effort to make up for the fatigue.

Two groups were investigated in several phases. One group was comprised of 60 airplane pilots who had a lengthy technical interview. Their wives were questioned by social workers to assess the impact of their husbands' occupation on the family. The other group were from the five categories of flight attendants.

Fatigue studies in the past have tended to concentrate on the performance aspects of behavior. Subjective states of the individual and physical measures have been largely ignored except in the cases of strenuous physical activity. In skilled tasks, results have been characterized by responses made too late or too early, with more than usual vigor, and by an occasional failure to respond at all.

The aircrew population showed substantial evidence of overarousal. The clearest evidence consisted of a high prevalence of dyspepsia - 25%, and evidence of less severe symptoms in another 25%. Sleep patterns were disrupted so that a sleep deficit arose after ten days away from home. It typically took two or three days for the pilot to unwind after returning to home.

Factors that contributed to fatigue reactions in the aircrew were (1) night flying, (2) risk and responsibility, (3) the aircrew personality, and (4) relations between management and the aircrew.

The implications for industry are that many companies are increasing their amounts of shift work due to more mechanized factories and in order to increase production. The inevitable reaction is that more workers will suffer from the sleep disturbances described by the aircrews. As automation becomes greater, the responsibility of the individual worker becomes less but must also become more consistent. The high levels of internalized anxiety which some people seem to experience may produce psychosomatic symptoms at higher levels than now reported.

Chase, D.J. Sources of mental stress and how to avoid them. Supervisory Management, 1972, 17, 23-26.

Stress is becoming an epidemic whose symptoms are varied and often hidden, but nevertheless inevitable. The problem is the amount and level in which one experiences stress, along with unpleasant behavioral changes. Typical consequences of stress involve homelife disruptions, alcoholism, sleeplessness, loss of appetite, nightmares and constipation.

However, there are various steps individuals can consider while trying to reduce mental stress. One step is to check one's physical environment for both small and large irritations, including heating, lighting, noise level and inadequate facilities. Another step would be to check one's social environment for habitual arguers, for complaints of being overworked, and to consider one's fears of being fired. There should also be a policy of rest and rotation where a single person does not have to cope with all of the decision-making and stress that accompanies leadership. Lastly, the value of encounter groups should be considered to get everyone involved with one another.

Organizations have recognized the importance of job-related stress and are experimenting with new office environments. The traditional cubicle offices are not being replaced with an open work environment. If the stress is far to difficult to cope with, the best thing to do may be to leave the organization.

Cherlin, M., Burnout: Victim and avoidances. Datamation, 27,(6), July, 1981, 92-99.

Burnout in data processing appears as boredom, cynicism, exhaution, paranoias, and the feeling of being unappreciated. Many of the sources of burnout in this job industry are found in the company and its policies. Data processing is a perfect setup for burnout because the job is so repetitive and therefore boring. Some people who are talented are given more maintenance to perform, become overloaded with maintenance and can't keep up with the state of the art, thereby setting themselves up to be passed over for promotion. Another source of frustration is data that arrives late, slowing down the production of a given product. Other people who are effective managers and learn to delegate jobs put themselves in jeopardy by neglecting plant politics. There eventually develops a feeling of hopelessness with the whole system which results in apathy and burnout, and often quitting or being fired.

Methods of avoiding burnout include having a terminal at home so one doesn't have to run in for every little problem; rotating assignments to challenge people; and planning for a three to four year productivity range. Beyond that range it is necessary to make some significant job reassignments or changes to avoid tedium. Other suggestions include in-service trainings, flexible schedules, and working for a company that cares about the health of its employees.

Cherry, N. Stress, anxiety and work: A longitudinal study. Journal of Occupational Psychology, 1978, 51, 259-270.

Some employees are believed to experience stress in greater rates than their colleagues. This may be the result of their character or personality more than the result of their actual job or position. Longitudinally collected data provide a rare opportunity to test the relative contributions of work factors and of a predisposition to anxiety in determining reported strain at work.

The subjects of the study were 26 year old male members of the National Survey of Health and Development. The 1,415 members were born between March 3-9, 1946. All subjects were from middle class British families. These individuals were contacted every two years from time of birth. The surveyed individuals were employed full-time (not in the armed forces), had taken a personality exam at age 16, and were able to answer detailed questions. Surveyed areas included reported strain at work, job information, and anxiety indicators. The goal of the survey was to determine which factors influence nervous strain and if differential recruitment was used for stressful occupations.

Results indicated that 38% of the subjects report they experience stress at work. Twenty-seven percent of the respondents could site a specific case of stress, while 11% could not site an adverse effect from strain. The second category of items, employment, indicates a strong positive relationship between type of work and amount of work strain. Anxiety indicators, the third category, fell into three areas: personality, nervous and psychiatric problems, and stress at home. A neurotic personality was related to work strain, as opposed to an extraverted personality. Likewise, individuals with nervous or psychiatric problems tended to report work strain more frequently. Only 11 men under strain at work reported that their psychiatirc problems were entirely caused by their present job or by worries about money. The data suggested that more men (71% of those with psychiatric problems) had these problems prior to their present job. Men experiencing strain at home were likely to express strain at work. These same individuals also sited problems at work as a source of problems at home.

Analyses established that a number of features of work are stressful, when measured across the population as a whole, and that these work stressors are additive to, and independent of, the susceptibility of the worker to anxiety. Individuals with higher level jobs tend to experience greater job stress. Those jobs which require greater autonomy, more personal responsibility and greater skill also result in more job stress, due to fear of failure or sense of urgency. The study was unable to validate the belief that recruitment was done based on personality and susceptibility to anxiety. However, the age of the worker can influence the type of job to be filled. There is a likelihood that low-skilled jobs will be filled by individuals who previously have been unable to cope in high pressure-great responsibility jobs. The study also indicates that comparisons should be made for a greater variety of jobs and socio-economic groups in order to obtain a fuller understanding of stress at work.

Clutterbuck, D. How I learned to stop worrying and love the job. International Management, 1973, 23(8), 27-29.

Transcendental Meditation (TM) is a simple, effortless, mental technique that is practiced twice daily for twenty minutes. Although the technique's main intent is develop the individual's full mental potential, it has several beneficial "side-effects." Business people throughout the world are reporting the tremendous value of gaining deep rest and relaxation twice daily. Research scientists have substantiated many of these claims. Evidently, TM produces a very unique style of functioning of the nervous system all together different from the familiar states of consciousness such as sleep, dreaming, and waking a fourth state of consciousness is called restful alertness which allows the release of fatigue and stress that have accumulated over time and may have produced many ill effects.

Another well-documented beneficial effect is a decrease in drug dependency. A study of 2000 meditators showed that most had completely or almost completely given up smoking, heavy drinking, and drugs such as pain killers, amphetamines and barbituates. In practitioners' jargon, TM is a process of digging through the more excited states of consciousness to reach the least excited state of consciousness, or the "source of creative intelligence." This source, according to the science of spring creativity and mental energy, is needed to tackle everyday problems. In effect, it is a technique to relax the body while effortlessly keeping the mind alert. Meditators take two 20-minute periods each day, one in the morning, and one in the late afternoon, to sit quietly and allow the mind to experience increasingly deeper levels of the thinking process.

Medical evidence of TM's effectiveness is shown in that blood pressure decreases, oxygen consumption and heart rate drop, and breathing becomes shallow. All of these are signs of relaxation. The pattern of electrical activity in the brain shows an unusually high number of alpha waves. These are usually associated with restfulness. Some U.S. doctors are training tense patients to meditate, to relieve their high blood pressure, and at least one psychologist is using meditation as a therapy for mentally disturbed patients. The effects are cumulative; the longer a person has meditated, the more relaxed he becomes.

Cohen, J. German and American workers: A comparative view of worker distress, International Journal of Mental Health, 5(2), 1976, 138-147.

The study examines the symptoms of emotional stress and the reported discomfort that workers felt. Employees studied in America were blue and white collar workers. The German employees were retail clerks and factory workers. Common characteristics of the two groups include union association, life in large metropolitan areas, a city with major movie production industries, and a casual lifestyle. The major factors influencing worker stress were fear of losing economic security, loss of status/respectibility, change in social mobility, achievement, and family-life style. Categroies which were studied and identified as symptom factors were psychological anxiety, physical health, immobilization and physical anxiety.

The results showed that the German workers had higher levels of symptoms, which was attributed to a limited number of mental health facilities with out-patient services. Americans have a wide variety of mental health services for both inpatients and outpatients, which are utilized without great reservations. Working women in the study were found to have lower comfort rates than males. This was attributed to the common inequities found against women in employment, particularly those women with the double roles of wife and mother. It was also found that the lower the income, the greater the symptom rate expressed. Workers experiencing high stress rates were those who felt they had little opportunity for leaving a "dead-end" job. Those workers experiencing even higher stress had temporary jobs with poor opportunity. This situation produces greater anxiety because of a lack of stability and

and performance in employment.

Conclusions of the study identified several aspects of worker stress. There was a generally higher level of felt discomfort among Munich workers, in spite of their being subjected to less environmental stress because of the threat of job displacement. Multiple role responsibilities may be partially responsible for the consistently higher rates of symptoms found among women workers.

Constandse, W.J. A neglected personnel problem. Personnel Journal, 51(2), 1972, 129-133.

This article concerns an often overlooked problem of the male climacteric period of life and how this phase of life relates to job satisfaction and productivity.

Discussed is how difficult the process of adjustment is for men past forty years of age as they enter this period of physiological as well as psychological change. Further explained is how men often pause during this phase of their lives to re-evaluate their failures, accomplishments and goals. This re-evaluation can weigh heavy on a man's mind, adversely affect employee morale, and lower productivity in organizations.

Men tend to cope with this problem in several ways and these are illustrated in the article. One way of coping for some is by protecting themselves and by "playing it safe." Individuals do this by writing memorandums, sharing responsibility and referring touchy issues to study groups. Others try to cope with the situation by starting a new career.

A positive means of coping with the problems experienced during the climacteric period of time, as discussed in this article, is by taking stock of one's own capacities and redefining goals. This is accomplished by first searching one's soul and making a realistic re-appraisal of personal capabilities. Second, one has to rethink his present definition of success. The author cites many different standards for measuring success, which entails more than monetary and material achievements.

Cooper, C.L. & Marshal, J. An audit of managerial stress. *Journal of Enterprise Management*, *1*(3), 1978, 185-196.

In the area of management a major source of stress is work carried home by the executive. Many managers tend to either take on too much work or work long hours. Two types of overload are identified -- qualitative and quantitative. The former means work is too difficult and the latter that there is too much work. Workers with quantitative overload tend to be cigarette smokers, have prolonged emotional strain, and engage in more activities per unit of time such as phone calls and office visits. These individuals also seem to have a higher incidence of death from coronary disease. Other factors reflected by quantitative overload are escapist drinking, absenteeism from work, low motivation, lowered self-esteem, and absence of suggestions to employers. Qualitative overload, particularly low self-esteem, is higher in some occupations such as professors but not administrators. Positive associations of qualitative overload include cholesterol levels in accountants and medical students. Symptoms attributed to both types of overload are job dissatisfaction, job tension, lower self-esteem, threat, embarrassment, high cholesterol levles, increased heart rate, skin resistance and smoking.

Role ambiguity and role conflict are sources of stress especially when there is inadequate information about a job role and responsibilities. Role ambiguity results in lower job satisfaction, high job-related tension, lower self-confidence, and increased blood pressure and pulse rate. The mental and physical health of individuals are often negatively affected. An individual experiences role conflict when he is unable to do what he wishes because of conflicting job demands. It has been found that the greater the power or authority of the people "sending" the conflicting role messages, the more role conflict produced job dissatisfaction. Some individuals were found to have more symptoms of stress if they had extensive and diverse interpersonal relationships or if they had responsibility for things or people. Middle managers are believed to experience the greatest stress in the areas of pay compression, job insecurity, little authority/high responsibility, and "boxed in" feelings.

Interpersonal relationship are focused around those with the employer (supervisor), subordinates, and colleagues. Poor interpersonal relations are defined as "those which include low trust, low supportiveness, and low interest in listening to and trying to deal with problems that confront the organizational member." Supervisors who display consideration toward subordinates create feelings of reduced job pressure. The ability of a supervisor to participate in the functioning of an organization, as well as delegation of responsibility, enables him to keep stress at a minimal level. A lack of social support between coworkers can also be a source of stress because of the isolation it tends to create.

The lack of job security and status incongruity are major sources of stress if an individual feels he is not progressing in his field at a satisfactory rate. Many managers undergo "executive neurosis" which consists of an over-promoted manager grossly overworking to hold down a top job and at the same time hiding his insecurity. The advancements of modern society are causing many executives to change careers in mid-life and this frequently causes uncertainty and stress. A related factor is the structure and climate of an organization. An employee's position in the organization determines his freedom, autonomy, and identity. If an employee feels positively about his job he will be a more productive worker, have greater participation, and have higher job satisfaction and self-esteem.

Areas of a manager's life not directly related to his job also influence the amount of stress experienced. Problems frequently occurring are time management and commitment management in relation to marriage, family, and mobility. The expectations of the manager's company toward the spouse (especially the wife) traditionally are those of support and compliance. Frequently the job demands are so great that total energies of both spouses are required to enable them to advance the career of one with minimal amounts of stress. Frequent relocation of a manager and his family can generate problems such as rise in female alcoholism, rise in divorce rates, rise in delinquency and violence, and lack of development of relationships with community or family.

The most important factor in this study of stress is the manager and his behavior. The Type A manager is described as having "extremes of competitiveness, striving for achievement, aggressiveness, haste, impatience, restlessness, hyperalertness, explosiveness of speech, tenseness of facial musculature, and feelings of being under pressure of time and under the challenge of responsibility." An individual having these characteristics is believed to have a higher incidence of coronary heart disease, and higher levels of cholesterol, triglyceride, uric acid, etc.

Ways to manage stress at work include: 1) recreate the social, psychological and organizational environment in the work place to encourage greater autonomy and participation by managers in their jobs, 2) provide the family opportunities to become involved in the decision making process of work that affects all members of the family unit, 3) clarify role and interpersonal relationship difficulties within organizations, 4) create an organizational climate to encourage communication, openness and trust, so that managers are able to express their need for help, and 5) increase the sensitivity of organizations toward managers in an effort to reduce stress and maintain satisfactory relationships.

Cooper, C.L. & Marshall, J. (Eds.). White Collar and Professional Stress. New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1980.

Stress-related illnesses, such as coronary heart disease, have been on a steady upward trend in almost all of the developed world. Although some white collar occupations do not seem to have as high a mortality rate with respect to ischemic heart disease and other stress-related illnesses, they are becoming increasingly vulnerable to them. White collar and other professional workers seem to suffer more from anxiety and emotional illness than many other groups of workers.

The purpose of this book is to examine the current research on white collar and professional jobs in an effort to identify their problems areas and sources of work stress.

The contents of this book are as follows:

Part I Stress Among Health Care Professionals

1. Dentists Under Pressure: A Social Psychological Study
   Cary L. Cooper

2. Stress Among Nurses
   Judi Marshall

Part II Stress in Education

3. School Administrators: Sources of Stress and Ways of Coping With It
   Rasalie L. Tung and James L. Koch

4. The Changing Role of the American Teacher: Current and Future Sources of Stress.
   Beeman N. Phillips and Matthew Lee

5. Sources of Stress Among British Teachers: The Contribution of Job Personality Factors
   Chris Kyriacou

Part III Stress Among Community Service Workers

6. Stress and the Policeman
Marilyn J. Davidson and Arthur Veno

7. Stress in Social Work Practice
Joseph W. Eaton

Part IV Stress Experienced by Technologists

8. Stress and the Professional Engineer

9. Stress Among Technical Support Staff in Research and Development
Stephen Fineman

Part V Stress Among Public Servants

10. Occupational Stress Among Members of Parliament
Mike Noble

11. Only From the Outside: Stress in Trade Union Leaders
Clive Jenkins

This book has offered a new look at several occupations and an insight into the serious health, psycholgoical, and social risks of taking up a particular kind of work. The contributions represent a range of levels of analysis with complementing and overlapping perspectives. Some are generally-based literature reviews; nurses, teachers, police, and engineers particularly fit this format.

Certain themes are repeated across this volume. This overlap is by no means complete, and several authors make the case for 'distinctive features'. Several of these common themes are in fact related to the needs of researchers, writers, and interventionists to recognize and take account of significant differences within the populations with which they deal.

A concern that even further discrimination is required is apparent in most authors' attempts, sometimes unsuccessfully, to include an understanding of the impact of individual differences in their profile. Many report the lack of relevant research material. Studies which have addressed this issue are often sadly lacking in reported findings. There are indications in several chapters that person-related factors (but those not easily measured on standard scales) are relevant. A suggestion made by several authors is that causes of stress change over the individual's career sequence and that these changes need to be recognized in both research and stress-alleviating interventions. This idea of phases appears to be best documented for teachers and school administrators.

The ultimate aim of identifying causes of stress and understanding how they operate is to manage stress at tolerable levels. Several authors draw implications from their work about how this might be achieved. Most suggestions are appropriately broad and flexibly worded, given the complexities and individual variabilities in stress experience identified in the text. Taking physical and psychological care of oneself on an individual level is a dominant theme. A few actions the organization can take are also identified. Providing social support in one form or another is advocated, as is more attention to stress as a factor during selection and training. The authors' emphases on variability leads them away from suggesting sweeping, organization-wide reforms, unless across-the-board causes of stress can be identified.

Cooper, C.L., & Payne, R. (Eds.). Stress At Work. New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1978.

A simple model of the stress process is developed by concentrating on four aspects:

1. What are the stressors, i.e. environmental psychological, physiological, social?
2. Who is being stressed, i.e. white collar vs. blue collar worker?
3. What are interactions between the stressors and the person?
4. What can be done to arrest the pathological consequences of physical and psychological strain?

The Blue Collar Worker

There are both subjective and objective measures of stress, but the subjective measures are likely to be biased. Subjective and objective measures of environmental stresses, (e.g. noise, heat, cold, wind, etc.) may conflict. For example, people may complain about noise at work; yet, noise can increase the rate of work.

The Manager

A study of the literature reveals a formidable list of 40 interacting factors which might be sources of managerial stress. Seven major categories of stress can be identified: the individual manager, the intrinsic characteristics of the job, role in organization, stage of career development, organizational structure and climate, quality of relations within organizations, and organizational interface with the outside.

The Family

Research has investigated the ways in which successful career executives managed to cope with the demands of a managerial job and a growing family. The analysis is stated in terms of achievement/dominance (work) and affiliation/nurturance (family) orientations of husband and wife. The typical stereotype is the husband who is a high achiever with a need for dominance and little need for affiliation and nurturance, and a wife who is just the opposite. Stresses are minimized and satisfaction increased if the activities, responsibilities, and roles of the two partners correspond to their personal dispositions.

A paradigm of stress research examiness five interactions of casual relationships among several variables:

1. Social conditions conducive to stress
2. Perceived stress
3. Responses to stress:
    - a) physiological
    - b) cognitive/affective
    - c) behavioral
4. Outcomes:
    - a) physiological
    - b) cognitive/affective
    - c) behavioral
5. Conditioned variables (individual or situational)

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Cooper, C. & Torrington, D. Strategies for relieving stress at work. Personnel Management, 11, 1979, 28-31.

Stress at work is a critical problem for business today and will continue to be in the next decade. Little has been done to minimize job related stress. Ways to control stress can be grouped into two categories: short-term, aimed at modifying existing personnel operations; and, long-term, having to do with overall company policy.

Short-term strategies include performance appraisal, stress counseling, annual check-ups, and concise job descriptions.

Changing of cuntions within an organization, or acquiring a new one, is a time of stress to an individual. Having clear job description and selection criteria can help reduce the stress caused by the job promotion of an individual into a job for which he/she is not suited.

Another very specific source of stress is the need of employees to move to other parts of the country. In many large companies and public sector organizations this is standard personnel policy; promotion accompanies movement. In a move such as this the employees have the stress of a new job, as well as domestic and family problems which relocation brings. The policy linking promotion to relocation needs to be investigated more thoroughly by organizations. They must consider the person and whether promotion and relocation are actually necessary for the worker and the company.

Stress awareness training programs can be set up for employees, which can include T group training, a way of helping people see themselves as others see them. The training could also include methods of slowing down psychological processes, i.e., yoga and transcendental meditation. Discussion of stress at work could also be part of an in-service training program.

Dimarco, N. & Norton, S. Life style, organization structure, congruity and job satisfaction. *Personnel Psychology*, 1974, *27*, 583-591.

The present study is concerned with predicting job satisfaction from the congruity between the employee's life style and his perception of the organizational structure. Many studies indicate that if tension results from style-organization structure incongruity, such tension could affect the individual's satisfaction with the job itself.

The subjects were 78 staff employees in areas of accounting, personnel, engineering, architecture, and market research, drawn from six large manufacturing organizations in the midwest. The employee's ages ranged from 23-60, and they had from 2 to 28 years experience in the organization. All subjects were co-workers of six MBA students enrolled in a graduate business program at the University of Missouri, St. Louis, Questionnaires were employed.

In 1969, Friedlander and Margulis examined similar studies. They concluded that neither individual nor situational factors separately accounted for a "substantial portion of the variance" in job satisfaction. Research dealing with work structure has been performed in both business and education sectors. However, in 1960, Vroom had concluded that the congruity of the relationship between the authoritarian personality and the bureaucratic work structure were related to positive job attitude. In 1970, Huse and Price implied that congruence bewteen authoritarianism and bureaucratic work structure results in increased motivation.

Dornstein, M. Organizational conflict and role stress among chief executives in state business enterprises. Journal of Occupational Psychology, 1977, 50, 253-263.

The paper reports the results of an investigation conducted in 17 public corporations focusing on the relationship between role conflicts (resulting from divergent orientations among chief executives and board members), and feelings of role stress among the chief executives. Two types of role conflicts were studied, person role conflict and intersender role conflict; these were related to three indices of role stress. The findings indicate that the various types of role conflicts are differently associated with the various indices of role stress. For example, it was found that intersender role conflicts (disagreements among board members), are in some cases negatively associated with role stress among executives. The saliency of role conflicts and the degree to which they concern the day-to-day management of the corporation appear to be positively related to role stress.

It is suggested that chief executives will experience a feeling of normlessness, or a lack of normative guides, when confronted by a board torn between conflicting orientations and not able to fulfill it's role as an active management entity. These executives are dependent on the support and cooperation of board members, which contributes to a feeling of powerlessness. Disagreements between board members frees some executives to act as they see fit and may diminish their feeling of role stress. Conflicts over the objectives of the corporation, conflicts over the allocation of decision-making powers, and conflicts of interest may be more important in contributing to role stress than conflict over basic values. This implies that conflicts in the daily conduct of the corporation contribute to role stress.

Duemer, W., Walker, N. & Quick, J. Improving work life through effective performance planning. The Personnel Administrator, July, 1978, 23-26.

Stress related consequences such as respiratory disease, digestive problems and cardiovascular problems can be modified or managed through a program of stress reduction which focuses on a type of planning called management by objectives. This is a type of planning in which the employee and the supervisor cooperate in planning and goal setting. Benefits of this type of planning include improved communications, improved planning, and reduced uncertainty and stress associated with changing job responsibilities.

They study was conducted in a division of a life insurance company by means of a questionnaire, examination of absentee records, and interviews. Role playing in small groups was a part of the process.

Some of the results include more challenging work goals, increased clarity and reduced confusion in the employee's work goals, assistance for supervisors in giving feedback about job performance, and encouragement for employees to participate in setting their own goals. Another result is that as clarity of work assignments and goals increases, confusion is diminished and absenteeism is reduced. Furthermore, the study found that high and low levels of competition are detrimental but that moderate levels of competition have a positive effect on job performance.

Evans, M.G. Herzberg's two-factor theory of motivation: Some problems and a suggested test. Personnel Journal, 49, Jan. 1970, 32-35.

This article discusses Herzberg's human motivation theory and the problems associated with that theory. Also contained in the article are some suggestions that relate to this theory.

Herzberg's study of motivations and subsequent studies which have replicated his utilized an interview method to ask respondnets to think of a time when they felt very good/bad about their job and then asked him to describe what was occuring. This is discussed in the article along with the conclusions drawn from that study. It was found that when the job was good, respondents mentioned such things as achievement, recognition, the work itself, (motivators); when the job was bad, respondents mentioned such things as company policy and interpersonal relations with supervisors and peers (hygienic factors). Pay was frequently mentioned when the job was considered both good and bad.

Key problem areas as brought out in the article include:

1. Recognition and where it comes from. This has to be characterized by mutual trust and respect.
2. Treatment of the pay factor. This can be used as a motivator or a hygienic factor by use of the organizations pay policies. Herzberg treats it solely as a hygienic factor.
3. The most serious problem is a person's self-esteem, which will affect how he will respond when asked to describe aspects of his life-spaces that are good or bad.

Executive stress may not be all bad. Business Week, April 30,
1979, 96-97.

Recently, both in the popular literature as well as medical journals the stresses and strains of corporate life have been singled out as the precursors to a variety of executive ills. Yet, some medical experts argue that too little stress can be as harmful as too much. These advocates of stress state that some executives get needed energy from stress in order to be achievers.

Forbes, a stress management specialist in New York City, as well as Dr. Cherry, the Director of Houstonian Preventive Medicine in Houston, have gathered evidence to show how beneficial stress can be. For example, a 1974 study by Metropolitan Life Insurance Company found that the presidents and vice presidents of the 500 largest industrial companies had 40 percent fewer heart attacks than middle managers of those companies.

Charles E. Thompson, the founder and director of professional services for the Thompson Medical Center in Chicago, states that in his last 23 years of examining over 17,000 executives, only 3 were found to be true alcoholics. Even though 99 percent of executives might drink, 90 percent drink only one to two ounces of alcohol a day.

Top executives support the idea that they know how to deal with stress. For instance, Roy A. Anderson, Chairman of Lockheed Corporation, states that "Some degree of stress is a motivator. If the job is too soft, you lose your mental acuity."

This attitude is also held by many high-level managers of all kinds. Thomas W. Landry, Dallas Cowboy head coach, has stated that, "it's important to be to be in a high-pressure environment....When the heat is off, I'm already looking forward to the next time." As a result, stress may be a key ingredient to an executive's successful performance. Edmund T. Pratt, Jr., Chairman of Pfizer Incorporated, contends that "stress in the sense of challenge is important to getting a job done."

Forbes, the stress consultant, points out that too little stress in terms of job challenge can lead to fatigue, increases accidents, and insominia, which are usually thought to be related to too much stress. Dr. Chamberlain, an assistant professor of organizational behavior at Southern Methodist University, says that the lack of stress helps explain complaints of boredom by telephone operators during off-peak periods and by airplane pilots during instrument flying. Overall, many companies are now taking notice of the fact that too little job-related stress may not be beneficial to the company's goals.

Executive stress may be primarily a theoretical problem in which most managers in high stress jobs are innately able to cope. In contrast, other executives have a high opinion of themselves, are flexible in their approach to life, and are not easily frustrated. These types of personality traits seem to predispose such individuals with the ability to handle much stress.

Gerald F. Fisher, President of the Center for Organization Development in New York states that "Stress is a neutral term; some people have taken the word and made it negative." He further pointed out that stress harmful to some managers may actually be healthy to others.

The article concludes with the question: Are companies wasting valuable executive time worrying about stress when they can't do anything about it?

Ferguson, D. A study of occupational stress and health. Ergonomics, 1973, 16(5), 649-664.

This study was instigated because of claims by telegraphists in a large Australian communications organization that members of their union suffered ill health due to stresses imposed by their work. Records of absenteeism over 2-5 years were studied from all telegraphists in the organization, from random samples of clerks and mechanics in all State capitals, and from mail-sorters in Sydney in the same organization. In the study 516 telegraphists in Sydney, Brisband, and Melborne, and 155 mail sorters in Sydney were examined medically and interviewed; ergonomic and occupational hygiene investigations were made into the work environment.

There were gross occupational and geographic differences in absence, which were partially attributed to neurosis. In every capital the number of absences in telegraphists was greater than it was for clerks, and clerks were absent more than mechanics. In each occupation the neurotic absence rate was greater in Sydney than in other capitals.

There were numerous other statistically significant differences between capitals and vocations in social attributes, personal habits, and negative attitudes toward work which can be considered as the causes, effects, or correlates of mental stress. The only characteristic that can be directly linked to neurosis in relation to work is the negative attitudes of the workers toward it and their personal habits that stem from this dissatisfaction.

No association was found between neurosis or any other possible index of stress such as hypertension, coronary heart disease, asthma, nasal allergy, or migranes. Various measures can be undertaken to combat these symptoms. They include scientific reorganization of the task to increase satisfaction and reduce adverse side effects. A mental health program could also be implemented.

Fineman, S. The stressless redundancy? Management Decision, 16, 1978, 331-337.

Stress is defined as "an individual psychological state characterized by a persistent and high level of anxiety or tension." How a person will experience stress is dependent on three factors: perception of the situation, personality, and what the person does about his predicament. Redundancy is seen as a very negative occurrence in personal life because it (the loss of a job) causes insecurity, misery and stress.

The effect of stress as a result of redundancy is illustrated by three themes. The first theme is that of the threatening problem to high-stress people. Low-stress individuals find the same situation as an opportunity to begin new careers. Self-concept is a critical personality variable affecting how a person copes with the loss of a job. If a person's self-image was tied to their views of their previous job, redundancy would negatively affect their personal competence. If an individual found his/her prior job stressful and dissatisfying, the loss of the job can in some ways be a relief. The second theme examines these influences on personality. Third is the theme of behavior strategies. The three behaviors examined are: confrontation, avoidance, and inactivity. Persons suffering from high stress or depression exhibit avoidance or inaction. Individuals not threatened by redundancy are able to confront their problem and cope with the accompanying anxieties.

Three factors to consider in managing stress during redundancy are anticipating the threat, recognizing the threat, and offering support to avoid stress. The most important factor is use of support to master a problem. Vocational guidance, psychological counseling and support groups can help those who have lost employment. These assist a person to manage his anxieties and minimize the negative behaviors of avoidance or inactivity. A redundancy plan is accepted as more than just a 'natural wastage that occurs during hard economic times.' It should be viewed as a policy decision which can dramatically affect an individual's life and well being inside and outside the work setting.

Fineman, S. A psychological model of stress and its application to managerial unemployment. Human Relations, 32(4), 1979, 323-345.

Stress is a response to a negative stimulus which creates within the subject tension or anxiety. When stress is experienced certain coping mechanisms are engaged to assist the subject in adapting to stress. If experienced over a long period of time, stress can result in "diseases of adaptation" which are usually chronic ailments such as heart disease. Possible precursors to stress include the source of stress, individual perceptions of stress, individual personality, and the behavioral approach for dealing with stress.

Of the psychosocial precursors to stress, the individual and his perceptions of stress are most important. Individual perceptions are influenced by values, needs, abilities, expectations, and experiences. If failure is perceived as possible or likely then the fear of failure is associated with pain, displeasure, and a lowered self-concept. Improving self-esteem should then be a positive step toward better adjustment (lower stress), although it may be undesirable in terms of stress susceptibility that self-esteem should rise above a particular critical point for an individual. Stressors that influence self-conept are confrontation, avoidance, and inactivity. The behaviors that result because of the stressful circumstances are used as coping mechanisms and may be used jointly or singly.

It is assumed that a person will actively attempt to reduce such threats in order to achieve a threat-free state of "dynamic equilibrium", a more comfortable preferred condition. This assumption is used as a basis for implementation of problem-solving skills. The conditions needed to accomplish problem solving are source of energy, appropriate, resources, and a problem that can be solved. Successfully solving a problem increases an individual's skill and his self-concept. Failure to solve problems increases individual tension and stress. Individual perception of a demand or a problem is determined by the extent of that person's needs. A "self-generated" factor may not cause more stress for the individual or a lowered self-concept. If this self-generated factor is believed, anxiety levels rise and stress results.

Psychometric and qualitative data were gathered to determine the impact of stress in certain conditions. Subjects of the study, (23 male, 2 female) were unemployed managers. Each was interviewed and given two questionnaires, the Sixteen Personality Factor and the General Health. The General Health Questionnaire is used to measure non-psychotic psychiatric illness. These areas are often indicative of potentially hgih stress. The data gathered indicates that unemployment in and of itself does not cause stress.

Based on the information gathered in interviews, stress due to unemployment resulted when additional conditions were present. The conditions for those with high stress included high personal involvement in the job, conflicts between family problems and job problems, repeated failure to secure employment, or repeated failure to master domestic or job problems. The latter two conditions increased feelings of helplessness and failure. Those individuals with low stress exhibited the following: situations of low threat that offer an opportunity for change, had little personal involvement in the job, a job offered less threat than being fired, strong belief in personal worth and high self-confidence, and a difect approach to problem-solving.

Results drawn from the study indicate that individual personality/perceptions determine the impact of stress. The behavior of confrontation is useful in reducing stressful situations. This behavior may encourage motivation and the use of problem-solving skills. Stress can be a learning tool if it causes the individual to analyze his environment and the impact it has on him.

Forbes, R. Anatomy of the stress-prone individual. Sales and Marketing Management, 1979, 122(8), 53-56.

A stress-prone person is most likely in a hurry, always has to be the best, takes on too many responsibilities, and gets into too many arguments. Creating these pressures can result in heart attacks, ulcers, or stroke, among other ailments.

For the stress-prone individual, relaxation is difficult without feeling guilty and outside hobbies or interests are few. Since our society rewards this kind of behavior, it is difficult to encourage these individuals to change, even though they are predisposed to stress-prone illnesses much earlier in life. Sixty percent of Americans are stress-prone and have six times as many heart attacks as the average person. Personality and temperament factors have been found to be more significantly related to heart problems than have the number of cigarettes smoked, cholesterol level, or blood pressure levels.

A list of personality characteristics is provided as a guide to measure stress-prone behavior: 1) a tendency to overplan each day; 2) polyphasic thinking (while involved in one activity, the person may be thinking of several others needing to be done at the same time); 3) need to win; 4) persistant desire for recognition; 5) inability to relax without feeling guilty; 6) impatience with delays or interruptions; 7) involvement in projects with many deadlines; 8) chronic sense of time urgency; 9) excessive competitive drive; and 10) compulsion to overwork - the workaholic.

Each individual has an optimum level of stress. Because this level varies from individual to individual, it is important to decide what is the optimum stress level and learn to function at the height of productivity.

Fletcher, C. Managerial stress. British Journal of Sociology, 27(4), 1976, 516-517.

Stress is often approached as a middle-class problem. There may well be a tendancy for the current industrial system to push people to either stress or tedium. The factors that cause stress include highly structured situations, coping with computers, redundancy, and fragile identities.

Stress is essentially the micro-politics of interpersonal yet binding relations formally made in business. Most organizations barely contain their own anarchy. Their managers have often gone beyond needing sympathy or advice. For them the question of stress is whether it will be a disease or a demise.

Ford, D.L. & Bagot, D.S. Correlates of job stress and job satisfaction for minority professionals in organizations: An example of personal and organizational factors. Group Organization Studies, 3(1), March 1978, 30-41.

In general, it has been found that organizational variables account for four times as much unique variance in one's job attitude than personal variables, such as age, sex, marital status and education. It can be concluded then that satisfaction is related more to organizational variables than personal or individual variables.

In a recent study, the role of the Type-A personality in relation to work stress and psychological and physiological strains was examined. The Type-A personality is characteristic of the hard driving, persistent individual. He is involved in his work, has a sense of time urgency, and is oriented toward leadership and achievement. On the other hand, an individual described as exhibiting a Type-B personality is the opposite of Type-A. It was concluded that stress does in fact affect the Type-A personality more so than the Type-B personality.

Further, it is believed that the hard-driving, involved Type-A personality can make significant contributions to their organization. Simultaneously, however, their mental and physical health suffers. Increased attention has been focused on the Type-A personality with regard to physical health. Stress-induced coronary heart disease has begun to take its toll on individuals characteristic of Type-A personalities. Studies have shown that these individuals are affected twice as often as individuals characterized as Type-B personality.

Studies with regard to job stress and job satisfaction among blacks and other minorities are limited. Job satisfaction in this sense describes a lack of conflict, well-defined tasks and roles, and a healthy atmosphere. Job dissatisfaction, on the other hand, has many characteristics including role conflict, job immaturity, status inconsistency, overwork, etc. This type of atmosphere is unhealthy. It causes tension in individuals who are prone to heart disease. Little is known about where minorities stand with regard to these issues.

A few studies, however, have been conducted. In some studies, disparity has been noted between career success and work experiences of black and white professionals. Lower satisfaction needs have also been noted for black workers than for whites in white-collar jobs. Other studies show that whites who have conducted performance ratings of blacks have failed to accurately reflect the true quality of their performance. Blacks have become over-achievers (a characteristics of the Type-A personality) because of the injustices they have experienced in trying to get hired or to be promoted on a job. This produces a stress-provoking situation and puts blacks in double jeopardy. There is a greater incidence of hypertension associated with blacks than whites. In addition, hypertension has a significant relationship to heart disease. Because the studies that have been conducted so far do not answer some of the questions that have been raised, further research is needed.

It has been reported that blacks exhibit the Type-A personality more so than any other race. Along with the relationships between several organizational factors and perceived anxiety, job satisfaction and stress, this issue was investigated. Higher order needs were also examined. A study was conducted using a small sample of blacks and Mexican-American professionals. Subjects were asked to complete questionnaires under controlled conditions. The questionnaires measured the individuals' perceived leadership behavior of their superior, job satisfaction, job stress, role clarity, task structure, hierachial level, job pressure, tendency for Type-A personality behavior, higher order needs, race and many other demographic details.

The study concluded that job satisfaction was positively related to supervisor supportive and instrumental behavior. Job satisfaction was negatively related to role clarity. Job stress was negatively correlated only with supervisor supportive behavior. It was found that for subjects characterized as Type-A, role clarity and job satisfaction were negatively and significantly correlated. On the other hand, for persons with Type-B personalities, this relationship was positive and nonsignificant, positive correlations with regard to relationships between leader behavior and job satisfaction.

In general, the majority of the relationships investigated were nonsignificant. Results further suggest that stress is generally not related significantly to the organizational variables of leader behavior. task structure, organizational level and pressure. It does appear, however, that leader supportive behavior and leader instrumental behavior were of some benefit in assisting subjects to gain a notable level of job satisfaction and decrease job stress. It is worhtwhile to note also that as role clarity increases, job satisfaction decreases for blacks and Type-A personalities. The opposite is true for Mexican-Americans and Type-B personalities.

The results of this study do not fully address the type of questions that need to be answered concerning minority professionals and the correlates of job stress and job satisfaction. Insufficient results are a product of this study because of the small sample used. In addition, a of sensitivity was noted. This study does, however, represent a start for addressing these issues. Needless to say, more research needs to be conducted.

Ford, R.C. & Hartje, J. Biofeedback and management stress. Human Resource Management, Fall 1978, 12-16.

Increasing interest in executive stress reduction has been generated among mangers and behavioral researchers. Many stress-reduction methods are available to those interested. However, individuals are confused as to which method to use. Thus, the individual is left to rely largely on the self-reports of individuals in these program.

Biofeedback is one technique to be considered. Biofeedback is objective and effective. It is a procedure designed to allow the individual to monitor a particular body function. Continuous monitoring allows the individual to relax muscle tension by rewarding the desired behavior when undesired behavior surface. Biofeedback does not change the individual's personality or the situation which has caused the stress, nor does it create the abilities and individual traits necessary for doing a job effectively. It does, however, offer the person an opportunity to learn how to control his own muscle tension.

Using biofeedback is advantageous. Biofeedback has been successful in treating ailments such as insomnia, diabetis, impotence and some nervous conditions. In addition, biofeedback has been successful in the treatment of headaches. Biofeedback takes less time to administer than many other techniques. It is also less costly than many other stress management techniques. The effectiveness of biofeedback can be measured and recorded objectively. Simultaneously, biofeedback places no major ethical or moral obligations on the organization. Biofeedback can help solve the problems of executive stress.

Frankenhaeuser, M. & Gardell, B. Underload and overload in working life: Outline of a multidisciplinary approach. Journal of Human Stress, September, 1976, 2, 35-46.

The objective of this paper is to outline a multidisciplinary approach to problems associated with the relationship between worker satisfaction and health and industrial technology. Emphasis is placed on theoretical and conceptual problems viewed in a sociopolitical context, and on issues of research strategy.

The research strategy adopted in the present study rests on the assumption that a better understanding of the causes underlying ill health and dissatisfaction related to work can be integrated within a common framework with concepts and methods from social psychology, psychophysiology and psychosomatic medicine. Two methodologies are combined. One involves extracting specific subproblems from real-life work conditions and bringing them into the laboratory for systematic study. The other invovles taking the laboratory-based experimental techniques into the field and applying them to the study of people in their everyday activities.

Interest is often focused on stimulus underload and overload. According to one tentative interpretation, the crucial stressor is the demand on the worker to make skilled and extremely important economic decisions in a short period of time, at a pace set completely by a machine. Generally this kind of work is perceived with satisfaction if the worker is in charge of the machine. If the machine controls the worker then the worker feels frustration and shows it, for example, in more sick leave than is necessary.

Since this study was conducted in a sawmill, the factors of noise, sawdust, and harsh climatic conditions cannot be separated so that the findings can be applied to other industries. The next step as stated by the authors is to design a study where these factors can be eliminated.

Freudenberger, J.H. & Richelson, G. How to survive executive burn-out. Ernst & Whinney Ideas, Winter 1981, 21-23.

Burnout is defined as a state of fatigue or frustration brought about by devotion to a cause, way of life, or relationship that failed to produce the expected reward. General symptoms are described as well as behavior resulting from mild to severe burnout.

Causes given for burnout are varied. The belief in the American dream of hard work, excellence in achievement, prestige, and security is a major factor. The personality of 'accomplishers and doers' leaves no room for weakness or inability to master situations. Individuals found to suffer from burnout are leaders who have pushed themselves too hard and too long and cannot accept less than the ideal goal. Those in the helping professions suffer greatly from frustrations and disappointments which increase until the stage of burnout.

Suggestions are given to avoid burnout. First, do the best you can, no matter how tiny it seems. Second, correct the balance between ourselves and society - become stronger. Third, increase self-awareness to avoid over extending yourself. The article concludes with a fifteen question quiz to determine if readers of the article have suffered burnout.

Garrison, K.R. & Muchinsky, P.M. Attitudinal and biographical predictors
of incidental absenteeism. Journal of Vocational Behavior, 1977,
10, 221-230.

Time and again, researchers have studied absenteeism as it relates to employees. Though limited in number, some studies have focused on attitudinal and biographical predictors of absenteeism. This research has indicated some consistency in attitudinal predictors. Among biographical predictors, a positive correlation between age and absenteeism was noted. Family size and tenure have also been found to be valid predictors of absenteeism, although other researchers have found tenure to be negatively related. In addition, some investigators have discovered a negative correlation between satisfaction with work and overall job satisfaction and absenteeism. Despite all of these studies, there is still work to be done in this area.

Previous studies have failed, however, to cross-validate. This procedure is of particular importance because many of the predictors noted by some researchers have filed to hold up. Unwarranted conclusions can be said to have been drawn from a number of previous studies. Because of the numerous ways in which to measure absenteeism and the differential reliability associated with each, another problem has arisen with regard to previous studies. As a result, another study was addressed to employee absenteeism to include cross-validation.

In this study, absenteeism as a function of paid versus unpaid absence was measured. Subjects included 195 employees from a large accounting department. All were measured on these two predictors of incidental absenteeism. (Incidental absenteeism included time off from the job as a result of accident or illness, tardiness, dental or medical appointment, funeral attendance, etc., not to exceed seven days). The decision to pay or not to pay an employee during his/her absence was dependent upon tenure and the reason for the absence. The biographical predictors considered were the employee's shift, tenure, job title, marital status, age, and sex. Subjects who had available attitudinal predictors completed the Job Descriptive Index (JDI). This instrument measures satisfaction with regard to work, coworkers, supervision, promotins and pay.

Results of this study indicate that absenteeims with pay and absenteeism without pay have different predictors. Attitudinal variables were negative correlates of absenteeism. In contrast, JDI with regard to work and total JDI positively predicted absenteeism without pay. Some of the biographical variables were found to be positive predictors of absenteeism; others were not. Criterion contamination was considered a possible problem with the tenure variable. For one with long-term tenure (more than five years), more paid absences were awarded. Employees with short-term tenure received fewer paid absences.

In summary, the most significant discovery in this study is that it is more difficult to predict paid absences than unpaid absences. This is because there is not a pattern or predictable course through which employees accrue paid absences. The majority of the subjects in this study received some paid absences. Unpaid absences are predictable to some degree. This was noted in the results which showed that employees who are more dissatisfied with their work and who have several siblings will have a greater number of absences than those who do not fit this description. Finally, it can be said that paid absences are unpredictable for the most part, whereas unpaid absences are significantly related to biographical and attitudinal variables.

Gavin, J.F. Occupational mental health forces and trends. Personnel Journal, 1977, 198-201.

This article is concerned with the shifting of the balance or responsibility from employee to employing organizations for manifestations of symptoms of mental illness. This derives from the realization that certain factors in the work environment may foster symptoms of mental illness.

Provided in this article is a discussion of some of the elements which might have contributed to the rising concern for occupational mental health. Briefly, they are as follows:

1. A primary factor seems to be the increasing democratization of industry.
2. Labor unions' growing advocacy of "quality of life" and mental health issues in union-management discussions and contract negotiations.
3. The changing values of industrial workers from Protestant ethic to "leisure ethic."
4. A change in societal attitudes toward mental illness, signifying greater understanding and acceptance of mental health problems.
5. Legislative provisions.
6. Court rulings on workman's compensation.
7. Corporate awareness of shared responsibility for the psychological well-being of employees.
8. Enhanced appreciation of the interrelatedness of the parts of our society.
9. The success of the women's movement in the United States.

10. An emerging doctrine of "authenticity."

These suggestions, as discussed in greater detail in the article, represent the more recent and apparent roots of what might be referred to as the "occupational health movement."

Gemmill, G.R., & Heisler, W.J. Machiavellianism as a factor in managerial job strain, job satisfaction and upward mobility, Academy of Management Journal, 1972, 15, 51-62.

Managers of a large corporation were part of a study to examine Machiavellianism in relation to job variables such as strain, satisfaction, mobility and opportunity for control. Individuals rated high in Machiavellian orientation tended to be more effective in manipulating and persuading others, which suggests that promotion of their own career is important. These persons also are adept at interpersonal influence. It was hypothesized that the Machiavellian orientation of managers would be negatively correlated with job strain and positively correlated with job satisfaction, perceived opportunity for formal control, and positional mobility. Another hypothesis suggested that Machiavellian orientation would be weaker in relation to job strain and job satisfaction and greater in the perception of opportunity for formal control.

To test the hypotheses 149 managers from a northeastern corporation were surveyed. The median age was 47 years and 63% had college educations. Machiavellian orientation was defined in terms of use of guile and deceit in interpersonal relationships, a cynical view of human nature, and a lack of concern with conventional morality. The areas studied included: job strain, job satisfaction, positional mobility, and perceived opportunity for formal control. The last area, opportunity for control, focused on leadership, motivation, communication, decision-making, goal setting, and control.

Results of the study showed that there is a strong correlation between Machiavellianism and perceived opportunity for formal control. Also reported by managers is that job strain decreases and job satisfaction increases as perceived opportunity for formal control increases.

Those with greater Machiavellian orientations often have feelings that reflect uncertainty in the areas of promotion opportunities, supervisory attitudes toward them, being passed over for promotion, amounts of delegated responsibility, and demands of organizational superiors. Managers with higher Machiavellian scores perceive less trust and openness being displayed in their organization. This may be the result of a manger not receiving expected quantities of information, authority and opportunity for formal control. Suggested also is the belief that certain situational characteristics are conducive to Machiallian behavior such as 1) opportunity for improvisation, 2) opportunity for face to face interaction, and 3) potential for emotional arousal.

Glicken, M.D., & Janka, K. Coming to grips with executive burnout. International Management, 1981, 36(10), 27-30.

Many organizations have established a variety of programs aimed at preventing burnout by helping executives deal with sources of personal and job related stress.

Burnout results when work no longer summons a positive emotional response. Its causes are difficult to identify and may vary among individual executives, especially since work motivations differ widely from individual to individual. Symptoms may appear suddenly or may creep in over a number of years. By observing work related behaviors one may observe that the quantity, quality, enthusiasm, creativity and dependable contributions to the organization are in danger. Once realized, many executives leave their jobs to start new careers; others stay on their present jobs, going through the motions and suffering every minute of it; and still others take out their dissatisfaction at home, often times resulting in divorce. Many times burnout occurs in those individuals who are considered to be among the most creative, productive and energetic executives.

Executive burnout can be treated and often prevented but assistance is needed and must come from within the organizational structure. Preventation strategies which can be utilized by organizations include developing programs which help individuals cope with the causes of stress that lead to burnout; teaching and supporting executives in strategies for reducing burnout; seeking appropriate relationships between individuals, jobs, and organizational structures, as well as programs for family and financial counseling and career development training. Many organizations have also established associations with community counseling services for executive referrals.

Gmelch, W.H. Stress: Management's twentieth-century dilemna. Supervisory Management, 23(9), 1978, 30-36.

Stress is viewed as one of the characteristic ailments of the twentieth century. The erruption of increase in stress has been caused by a rapid change in life style, as well as deterioration of religion and the family in modern society. The article mentions Walter Cannon as the "pioneer of modern stress research." The work of T.H. Holmes and R.H. Rahe is discussed.

The life change unit (LCU) is described as a predictor of health changes. By attaining various numbers of LCUs in one year a person may fall into a potential stage of life crisis. The Social Readjustment Rating Scale prepared by Holmes and Rahe is included for the readers to determine their total LCUs. The key to avoid falling victim to the LCUs predictions is in the individual's adaptive energy to cope with stressful situations.

To conclude this article, the author recognizes the fact that there are no universal techniques for coping with stress. He does, however, list and briefly discuss six possible methods of coping with stress. These methods include: 1) managing time; 2) managing by objectives, not by the 'obvious'; 3) building mini-vacations into every day; 4) educating others in the art of coping; 5) knowing the limitations of management; and 6) establishing and updating life goals.

Gmelch, W.H. A regimen for stress reduction. Supervisory Management, 1982, 27(12), 16-24.

When stress mounts, supervisors sometimes enter a danger zone where counterproductive symptoms occur. Psychologically they become confused, disoriented, irritable, irrational, apathetic, and emotionally withdrawn.

Each person has a different threshold to seemingly similar stress situations. Since a person cannot become immunized against stress, the end goal through proper management of stress is wellness, not illness. If we take a preventative, holistic approach to stress and build up our strength through a variety of stress reduction practices, we may avoid becoming stressed out.

There are four steps in the climb to wellness, each to be taken separately. The first and most critical step in controlling stress is to take charge and manage those stressors that are controllable. To absorb the symptoms, one uses the second, third, and fourth steps-physical fitness (e.g., aerobics); relaxation (e.g., Transcendental Meditation, Yoga, Zen, biofeedback, hypnosis); and proper nutrition (foods from each of the following categorie: fruits, vegetables, whole grain and enriched breads, cereals and grain products, milk, cheese, and yogurt, poultry, fish meats, eggs, and legumes).

Nathan Pritikin, one of the most authoritative sources on diet and degenerative diseases, has identified four habits that currently contaminate our systems: coffee (six or more cups per day are considered addict proportions); salt (blood pressure on the rise!); sugars (an average of 130 pounds per year consumed by each of us); and cholesterol (fats).

To see that a manager practices stress absorber activities regularly, he or she should prepare a simple and synergistic coping calendar that keeps track of absorber activities. Each of the categories builds on another with the net effect being much greater than the sum of the single parts. As a person exercises more, he or she will not be as hungry for sweets. The more exercise one gets, the easier it is to relax and sleep at night. With proper nutrition, one will feel better and want to keep one's body in top physical condition. Both exercise and nutrition add up to a relaxed life style conducive to the peace of mind necessary for true stress control.

Graber, D.E. The professorial dropout. Collegiate News & Views, 36(1), 1982, 1-3.

The demand for individuals with a doctorate degree in accounting has recently increased. Reports indicate, however, that there is a great imbalance in this supply/demand area. This imbalance is a result of the professorial dropout. This individual is representative of one who holds a doctorate degree in accounting but has pursued another career. The significant number of individuals falling into this category has increased the interest of researchers.

A study was conducted among professorial dropouts to determine the importance of this phenomena and the reasons for the dropout rate. Questionnaires were issued to 101 professorial dropouts. A 70.3% response rate was achieved.

Results indicated that a significant number of dropouts received increased income as a result of their career change. Many experienced greater job satisfaction following their change. When asked if they would make the same decision to change jobs if they could do it again, most responded in the affirmative. These results do not, however, represent all subjects. Though many received an increase in salary as a result of the change, others indicated that pay increase was not the motivating factor to change. Also, there were some individuals who remained undecided and some who believed that they probably would not react in the same manner if given the opportunity to turn back the clock.

The most important findings in this study are concerned with income and job satisfaction. Increased income can lure one away from a job where he is not satisfied. An increas in salary alone, however, as the study showed, was not the motivating force which led some away from their accounting careers. On the other hand, the majority of the subjects indicated that higher income was important in their decision to leave. These individuals have also indicated increased job satisfaction. Merely increasing salary probably will not decrease the dropout rate. There are other factors yet to be considered.

Grant, P.C. A model for employee motivation and satisfaction. Personnel, 56, 1979, 51-57.

Dr. Grant suggests that the efforts of employees can be increased by management for the purpose of accomplishing goals, if the model proposed here is utilized.

His philosophy is primarily based upon a blending of theories. Out of his incorporation of theories, including these of Maslow, Herzberg, McClelland, Banard, and Skinnerman, he concludes that the key variables involved are the employee's expected reawrds, expected costs, expected rewards and costs, effort, effort capacity, and maximum expected satisfaction. These relating variables are the elements which produce "The Effort-Net Return Model" which operates as follows:

> The rewards obtained by an employee in a company often times increase at a declining rate with increased effort. Costs often times increase faster with increased effort than rewards do. Midway through the effort level the employee perceives a maximum expected satisfaction.

Given such a model, the employee will continue with the company so long as the rewards are as great as the effort given in return.

In addition to the above mentioned theories, Dr. Grant absorbs exchange and expectancy theories by treating both rewards and costs as expected values. Thus, he develops five important points concerning motivation:

1. One's capacity for effort and the effort level that maximizes satisfaction seldom coincide.

2. Motivation does not depend upon the absolute magnitude of satisfaction but upon the point of maximum expected satisfaction.

3. Low effort could be accompanied by high costs and high effort could well be accompanied by low costs.

4. Motivation is low when reawrds are not contingent upon effort expended.

5. Multiple goals will be accomplished by maximizing personal total satisfaction.

Subsequently, management must get the employee to perceive that he/she will achieve higher satisfaction at a higher effort level in order to increase the employee's motivation. For the purpose of accomplishing this, management must make possible for the employee to pereceive a considerable difference between expected rewards and expected costs at a much more elevated effort level. Rewards must definitely be contingent upon effort and the cost increase, and an increase in effort must be at a slower rate than the increase in reward to produce such a perception.

Gupta, N. & Beehr, T.A. Job stress and employee behaviors. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, *23*, 1979, 373-387.

High incidence of withdrawal behaviors, such as absenteeism and turnover, may be an indication that a company is having problems with its human organization. An attempt is made in this study to determine the extent to which job stress and the joint contribution of job stress and personal variables can predict these behaviors. Job stress is defined as a demand from any aspect of the work role that has extreme or noxious characteristics, the noxiousness distinguishing stress form other characteristics which may only result in mild effects such as job dissatisfaction.

Two reasons are suggested for the positive relation betwen job stress and withdrawal behavior. First, stress is aversive to most employees, causing them to avoid the situation. Therefore, if the work environment is noxious, the person may try to avoid it by being late, being absent, quitting, etc. Second, a relationship between stress and withdrawal behavior can be based on the effects of job dissatisfaction.

To minimize some of the problems inherent in prior research on withdrawal behaviors, this study focuses on specific aspects of the working environment to determine the particular organizational conditions that are related to the various forms of withdrawal, and does not rely on a single data source. It integrates two major approaches, those predicting withdrawal exclusively form demographic characteristics and those predicting withdrawal form job satisfaction characteristics.

Hypotheses tested include the ability of role ambiguity, role overload, resource inadequacy, and underutilization of skills to predict absenteeism and turnover; the effect of family responsibility, problems with transportation, and problems with working hours on absenteeism;

and the effect of marital status, age, tenure, and number of children on turnover.

Six hundred and fifty-one employees from five midwestern organizations were interviewed for 90 minutes by using a four-item index. Additional information on absenteeism and turnover rates was obtained through personnel records. Eighteen months later, researchers returned to three of the five companies to obtain turnover and absenteeism information from company records.

Results show a small but significant correlation between job stress and subsequent absenteeism. The data showed no significant correlation between job stress and prior absenteeism. When stress and background characteristics were used simultaneously, a significant increase in the predictive power was obtained. Underutilization of skills was the only stress that was related to both absenteeism and actual turnover; therefore, different job stresses have different antecedents and consequences and should be considered independently.

Although absenteeism and turnover bear a positive relationship to each other, they each have different relationships to the different predictors; thus, they should be examined separately. In addition, demographic and background characteristics, such as age and tenure, predicted turnover alone almost as well as the background and stress variables combined.

Hall, D.T. & Mansfield, R. Organizational and individual response to external stress. Administrative Science Quarterly, 1971, 16, 533-547.

This study focuses on organizational changes due to environmental stress, as well as changes in strength and satisfaction of needs, job attitudes, and self-image experienced by employees. Stress is seen as an external force operating on a system and causing strain on the internal components of the system. Thus, changes external to an organization can be stressful and lead to internal strain (responding to external stress). A decrease in available financial resources (poor U.S. economy in the 1960's) was the environmental stress factor for three development organizations and their researchers. The reduction in funds seemed to cause management to increase pressure for short-term results (more immediate financial return on research activity).

Three Connecticut research and development organizations were studied in 1967 and again in 1969 (a follow-up study). The questionnaire used measured needs, job attitudes, self-image, reward structure, and perceived organizational climate. In all three organizations research had become more applied and short-termed. The researchers, however, remained equally involved in their work even though their choices, for type of research were fewer and the jobs were less satisfying. It was noted that a good management strategy for coping with stress was to involve employees in the decision making process. It is suggested that a balance was probably obtained, even though organizational changes resulted in strain for researchers and alienation from the organization.

Harris, T.C., & Lacke, E.A. Replication of white-collar blue-collar differences in sources of satisfaction and dissatisfaction. Journal of Applied Psychology, 1974, 59(3), 369-370.

Previous studies have indicated that white-collar employees more often get pleasure from intrinsic or motivator factors and blue-collar employees from extrinsic or hygiene factors. The Schneider and Locke event-agent classification system and the Herzberg critical incident method were used to replicate the earlier findings.

The Schneider and Locke event categories are task activitiy, amount of work, smoothness of work, achievement/failure, promotion, responsibility, recognition, money, interpersonal relations, and working conditions. The first seven categories were classified as "motivators" and last three as "hygienes."

The subjects in this study were 31 white-collar and 14 blue-collar employees from three organizations. Each subject was asked anonymously to describe one satisfying and dissatisfying incident and to classify the main event and agent that characterized each incident.

The 2 x 2 frequency analyses of motivator/hygiene factors for both employee groups yielded no significant Chi-squares. This indicates that for both groups the same events were seen as leading to job satisfaction and dissatisfaction. However, when examining achievement/failure and money as sources of satisfaction and dissatisfaction among the two groups the Chi-square becomes significant, indicating that white-collar employees are more likely to report getting pleasure and displeasure from motivator events and less likely to report these experiences from hygiene events than are blue-collar employees.

White-collar employees had a significant tendency to take credit for satisfying events and to blame others for dissatisfying events. These results were not duplicated with the blue-collar employees.

Hayes, J.L. Executive boredom. Management Review, 67(2), 1978, 2-6.

Effective managers must be predictable and unpredictable in turn at the right times and for the right things. For those actions and decisions that relate closely to a subordinate's feelings of security, or that define for him or her what is to be done and how well, the supervisor should be predictable, consistent. But for many other actions and decisions, a healthy dose of unpredictability can keep the organization just enough on edge to make each day interesting.

Poor management can lead to a bored organization. Inadequate long-term planning appears to correlate with a lack of organizational zest. Good managers avoid becoming immersed in routine; they are creative and long-term planners. Managers who do not adopt planning as an everyday process may fall behind in their knowledge and skill. Lacking a plan for the future, their self-development efforts lack direction and focus, and the state of the management art in fields that are important to their futures advances much more rapidly than their own knowledge and skill. The organization and their jobs pass them by, and they soon become physically and mentally tired.

With an effective appraisal system, one should be measuring a manager's performance against established standards of performance and therefore would know early when the manager is slipping. Few companies have well developed standards of performance and few managers seem to have the stomach for leveling with their subordinates. When standards of performance exist, a manager is not dependent on what someone else tells him about his performance; he can judge it for himself. Standards of performance are clear, objective, and public.

Hollon, C.J. & Shesser, R.J. The relationship of personal influence dissonance to job tension, satisfaction and involvement. Academy of Management Journal, 19(2), June 1976, 308-314.

Cognitive dissonance theory, as formulated by Festinger (1957), assumes that individuals tend to rationally organize and modify their cognitions in an attempt to attain some type of cognitive coherence. Dissonance is said to exist when cognitions such as attitudes, beliefs, opinions, perceptions and behavior pertaining to oneself or one's environment are incompatible with one another. The existence of dissonance between cognitions is presumed to give rise to feelings of psychological discomfort which motivates the individual to engage in behavior to mitigate the dissonance (Zastrow, 1969). In this article the authors examined personal influence in decision making pertaining to an individual's work milieu, within the context and framework of cognitive dissonance theory. theory. Within this approach, several hypotheses emerged:

1. Dissonance about personal influence in decision making pertaining to the immediate work environment is positively associated with job-related tension.
2. Personal influence in decision making pertaining to the immediate work milieu is negatively associated with overall job satisfaction.
3. Personal influence in decision making pertaining to the immediate work milieu is negatively associated with job involvement (psychological identification with the job).

A study was developed using full-time professional employees in seven public community colleges operating under the auspices of a large state university. Questionnaires were mailed and contained subscales to measure the following variables:

1. influence dissonance about decision making, measured by a scale which included 14 decisional facets of the work milieu derived from an examination of existing literature and research to represent aspects of the immediate work environment of community college faculty members which potentially offer an opportunity for personal influence.
2. job related tension, measured by the Job Related Tension Index which has been utilized by Kahn and his colleagues (Kanh, Wolfe, Quinn, & Snoek, 1964) in a national survey. This measure is composed of 15 items pertaining to potentially psychologically stressful circumstances in job situations.
3. overall job satisfaction, measured by a modified version of the Attitude Toward Job Scale developed by Vroom (1960).
4. job involvement, measured by the short version of a job involvement scale developed by Lodahl and Kejner (1965).

The results indicate that dissonance in the influence process in decision making is positively related to job tension and negatively related to job satisfaction. The negative relationship between dissonance and job development was found to be weak but statistically significant. Considering that the major thrust of research on dissonance theory is to specify under what conditions the dissonance predictions will hold, the results reported in this study suggest that the prediction holds when an individual experiences a difference in the actual and desired level of influence in the job situation.

How companies cope with executive stress. Business Week, August 21, 1978, 107-108.

Employers are eager to help their executives cope with the stresses of their jobs. More and more companies today are stepping forward with programs of their own.

Executive counseling gives people a way of talking about their feelings and tensions without feeling they are a patient or a failure. Stress management programs in corporations attempt to accomplish three things: provide information on causes of stress, teach avoidance skills, and offer help to those needing it. Managing stress is part of the skills a manager needs to possess, and managers must deal not only with their own personal stress but with what they do to people under them. The major focus of stress reduction today is to teach managers to cope with stress, enabling them to function better when actually experiencing it on the job. The new programs used today are biofeedback, meditation and progressive relaxation. Of the three programs biofeedback has gained the widest acceptance. It is a technique that teaches an individual how to lessen his physical reaction to a stressful situation by monitoring pulse rate and skin temperature. The results of biofeedback have enabled individuals to deal with stressors in a way that made them better able to work and produce more efficiently. Once an individual's stress level is determined he receives instructions in meditation techniques, such as concentrating on a single work or thought, and muscle relaxing exercises such as slow breathing.

These programs are aimed at people who are basically successful but have reached a point where they begin to wonder whether this is the way they want to spend the rest of their lives. All of these programs are voluntary and many are closely related to preventive health programs, through which company medical staffs can provide access to outside professional help if needed.

More and more companies are showing interest in stress programs because the bottom line is productivity and efficiency. They are beginning to see that there is an enormous potential for productivity gains in stress reduction programs.

Huber, V.L. Managing stress for increased productivity. Supervisory Management, 1981, 26(12), 2-12.

Each day supervisors deal with occupational related problems. This may become a very potent occupational hazard - job stress. We are constantly bombarded with events and circumstances that upset our body's equilibrium and cause stress. Stress is typically defined as "any action or set of circumstances under which an individual cannot respond adequately or can only respond at the cost of excessive wear and tear on the body."

The relationship between stress and productivity follows an inverted - U curve. If there is too little stress, an individual may actually become listless, apathetic, and nonresponsive. If stress is too great or present for long periods, the body loses some of its vitality. Anger, tension, fatigue and depression may set in. Every person's stress level is different, especially if there are underlying stressors present. Stress is inevitable and inherent in any job. Therefore, our goal should not be to alleviate stress completely but to develop useful and constructive methods for identifying and managing it.

Hans Selye reports three stages of stress: the alarm reactive stage (bodily functions are impaired); the resistance stage (body attempts to fight off elements of stress); and the exhaustion stage (vitality and energy are consumed). While emotional responses are easy to pinpoint, what are often ignored are the behavioral and physiological changes that are also associated with stress.

The body's response to stress begins in the hypothalmus and onward through the autonomic nervous system. Muscles tense, breathing deepens, blood vessells constrict, digestion stops and perspiration increases

Adrenal glands release hormones, the liver produces more sugar, the spleen releases red blood corpuscles and the thyroid is stimulated. If the body is able to fight or flee the stress, the system is restored to normal and the exhaustion stage is bypassed. If the stress continues, however, the body enters the exhaustion stage and collapse may occur.

Psychological stressors are often a potent source of stress because they are difficult to recognize. Major stressors for managers in today's business world are role ambiguity, conflict, overload, anxiety and frustration.

The life events scale, created by Thomas Holmes and Richard Rahe, measures the potential for stress-related illness. The life events scale includes both positive and negative life events. Meyer Friedman and Ray Rosenman described specific personality types that are more prone to stress than others. Type A individuals are always racing against the clock and pushing themselves to the limit. They are more prone to stress and coronary heart disease. Type B persons are more reflective, patient, and unhurried.

There are a variety of plans and procedures for getting rid of stressors. Frequent meetings with supervisors can help eliminate stress. Keeping a job diary can identify sources of stress, patterns of stress, or work overload problems. Making time for mental and physical leisure can also help relieve stress. Leaving the problem at a highly tense moment, talking the problem out, taking short naps, taking action on postponed projects, expressing anger appropriately, or seeking professional counseling are all additional ways of handling stress.

It is apparent that stress is a natural and often necessary part of a manager's life. It can increase the productivity of a manager or it can significantly retard it. The key is not to alleviate stress completely but to learn individual limits and how to channel stress constructively.

Hunt, J.W., & Saul, P.N. The relationship of age, tenure, and job satisfaction in males and females. Academy of Management Journal, 18(4), 1975, 690-702.

Conflicting studies have indicated various relationships between age, tenure, and job satisfaction. Herzberg (1957) had found a U-shaped relationship when comparing age and tenure to job satisfaction (initially positive, declining toward middle years, and increasing again with longer experience). Hulin and Smith (1965) found that relationships among the three variabels differed for male and females in two electronics plants as well as a number of negative relationships between age, tenure, and job satisfaction. Gibson and Klein (1970) found a positive linear relationship betwen age and job satisfaction, but a negative linear relationship between company tenure and satisfaction.

In order to clarify the relationships between age, tenure, and job satisfaction, and to test earlier findings on differences with respect to sex, an attitude survey was conducted among 5800 white collar workers in a large Australian government organization. Respondents were widely distributed throughout Australia, and participation was voluntary and anonymous. Questionnaries were returned by 3253 males and 550 females.

Respondents were asked to what degree (on a 5-point scale) of 16 job factors they were currently experiencing. Six items (interesting work, promotion opportunities, good supervision, good physical working conditions, friendly relationships with co-workers, and good salary) were employed as criteria for job facet satisfaction.

Multiple regression analyses were used to determine the degree of relationship between age, tenure, and the satisfaction criteria.

Significant positive linear relationships were found between overall job satisfaction and both age and company tenure of white-collar male and female workers. The correlation between age and overall job satisfaction was found to be the greatest among workers with less than 12 months tenure and among workers under 25. Overall job satisfaction was found to be more strongly associated with age than tenure for males, but the opposite was true for females. For males, significant U-shaped relationships were found between age and satisfaction with supervision and working conditions. For females, the only significant U-shaped relationship was between tenure and working conditions. Tenure was negatively related to males' satisfaction with supervision and working conditions.

It could be argued that differences betwen the needs, expectations, and work orientations of blue-collar and white-collar workers could affect these relationships, and that government bureaucracies may differ from other types of organizations. Further, employee performance may be a moderating variable.

Though some supporting evidence was found for each of the conflicting hypotheses proposed by previous researchers, it became clear that to attempt to develop a simple statement of the relationships between criteria of job satisfaction and employee age and tenure is impractical.

Iris, B., & Barrett, G.V. Some relations between job and life satisfaction and job importance. Journal of Applied Psychology, 1972, 56(4), 301-304.

The purpose of this article was to examine relationships among employee job satisfaction, life satisfaction and the importance of job factors.

The subjects were samples of first-level supervisions drawn at random from two departments, A and B, of a large southern chemical plant. Sample A consisted of 34 men while sample B had 35 men; sample A was identified by company management as a 'problem group' with low morals and sample B was not.

The procedure consisted of four questionnaires which required approximately 30 minutes to administer. They were the importance questionnaire, job descriptive index (JDI), satisfaction with life, and the personal variable questionnaire.

The results supported a "spillover" interpretation of the relationship between job and life satisfaction. In other words, those workers who experienced dissatisfaction in their jobs were those who were also unhappy with their lives. The relatiionship between satisfaction and pay was moderated by the favorability of the job situation. The concept of job importance was of value in understanding the interrelationship betwen job and life satisfaction.

Ivancevich, J.M. Effects of the shorter workweek on selected satisfaction and performance measures. Journal of Applied Psychology, 59(6), 1974, 717-721.

Because literature suggests that the 4-day, 40-hour work week provides improvement in production and morale, while reducing absenteeism, the author devised a 12-month study to examine the effects of the 4-day schedule on employee job satisfaction, anxiety-stress, and performance.

The specific hypotheses tested were that when 4-day, 40-hour and 5-day, 40-hour work groups are compared, the 4-40 subjects show significant improvments in (a) self-actualization, (b) autonomy, (c) personal worth, (d) social affiliation, (3) job security, and (f) pay satisfaction (Hypothesis 1); significant reduction in anxiety-stress (Hypothesis 2); significantly less unexcused absenteeism (Hypothesis 3); significant improvements in performance ratings (Hypothesis 4); and significant changes in the relationships of the job satisfaction facets, anxiety-stress, and absenteeism with overall performance (Hypothesis 5).

A Midwest manufacturing company with four geographically dispersed facilities agreed to place two divisions on the 4-day, 40-hour schedule, and to retain the other two on the 5-day, 40-hour schedule as control groups.

Questionnaires were administered at 3 different time periods over 13 months to subjects in the experimental (N-104) and in the control (N-106) groups matched on age, seniority, absenteeism rate, education, and average annual wage. Job satisfaction was measured by a 19-item Likert-type questionnaire. Anxiety-stress was measured by nine questions concerning the frequency of incidents in which employees "felt bothered" by job related matters. Absence rate was calculated in hours per month. Supervisors rated employees in performance as to quality, level, effectiveness as a team member, and job knowledge.

Results indicated a small but significant improvement in satisfaction with respect to personal worth, social affiliation, job security, and pay in the experimental division. There was also a small but significant improvement in perceived anxiety-stress. No significant changes were apparent in the absentee rate. Significant improvement was indicated in the rate of production, effectiveness as a team member, and overall performance, but quality and job knowledge ratings showed no differences between groups.

In general, performance appeared to improve slightly, but contrary to previous claims, no discernible improvement was shown in "growth" facets or absenteeism reduction.

Ivancevich, J.M. & Donnelly, Jr., J.H. Relation of organization and structure to job satisfaction, anxiety-stress, and performance. Administrative Science Quarterly, June 1975, 272-280.

Research in past literature has concluded that the larger or taller organizations tended towards proliferation of hierarchial levels of management which encourages centralization of authority and job specialization. This has resulted in low group morale, low output or performance, low job automony with suppression of personal judgement and initiative, and failure to develop managerial talents. Past studies have not considered sales personnel. This study utilizes sales personnel as its subjects and has derived its hypotheses from past research. The subjects were trade salesmen from 3 large national organizations. Job satisfaction was measured by a twenty item Likert scale.

Results suggested that salemen in flat organizations perceive more satisfaction and less anxiety stress than salesmen in medium and tall sales groups. Salesmen in the flat organizations reported little pressure from their supervisors and there appeared to be less adherence to strict organizational rules and policies. Salesmen in the tall and medium organizational structures expressed feelings that were completely opposite. They indicated that their supervisors constantly checked on them. They described how they felt in terms such as restrictive, stifling, constraining, lack of trust and excessive control.

The reported absences for all salesmen in all groups were extremely low, much lower than research data on industrial employees. Our explanation is that salemen work mostly on commission, and if they don't work they won't get paid.

Trade salesmen in the flat organizations perceive more self-actualization and automony satisfaction. They also reported significantly lower amounts of anxiety stress and performed more efficiently that salesmen in medium and tall organizations.

Ivancevich, J.M. & Matteson, M.T. Managing for a healthier heart. Management Review, 67, October 1978, 14-19.

For the past 60 years, the number of Americans dying from heart attack has significantly increased--650,000 now die annually. The increase in deaths is linked to the increasing complexity and stress of modern life. Stressors are present any time people are in a situation where their usual behavior is inappropriate and negative consequences result from not dealing with the situation properly.

Controlling blood pressure, cholesterol, and smoking could potentially control 25% of heart disease, but for the remaining 75%, organizational stress is believed to play an important role. Organizational stress can cause changes in the physiological and psychological make-ups of people, in addition to contributing to ulcers, migraines, asthmas, sexual dysfunction, and alcoholism.

Stress is broadly defined as a consequence of any action, situation, or force that puts special physical/psychological demands on a person (Hans Selye). In addition to creating an imbalance in a person involving many negative symptoms, stress can be a positive, motivating force; yet negative and positive stress symptoms are not the same for everyone. Personality characteristics, emotional balance, physical condition and health, and past experiences help to determine our responses. Selye contends that "racehorses" and "turtles" require a certain amount of stress, but the degrees and the sources vary. The relationship between organizational stress and individual performance often follows a bell shaped curve.

To aid the manager in identifying individual stress and in taking corrective action, the following factors are important: major organizational stressors, the manner in which stressors are perceived, the responses or outcomes to the perception of stressors, and important results or consequences. Stress can involve conflicting and excessive work demands creating role ambiguity, conflict and overload; cohesiveness and relations in a group (i.e. low cohesion can create stress, while high cohesion can serve to offset other stressors); under-utilization (lack of management attention, career progress); and inequity in reward systems.

Reactions to stress are emotional, behavioral, and physiological. Emotional responses include fear, anger, and anxiety. Behavioral responses include absenteeism, job turnover, and task error. Physiological responses include migraines, ulcers, hypertension, and heart attacks. Organization managers need to be aware that stressors build up; most people do not take a total fight or flight stance, thus allowing stress reactions to exist for long periods of time.

Medical literature indicates that different occupations have a higher incidence of physical ailments as ulcers, heart disease, and high blood pressure. Examples are given of organizational stressors related to three occupational groups: business groups, accountants, and operating employees.

Individual and group methods are suggested to reduce stress. The individual must be first aware and then take action. A physical examination is recommended. Awareness involves knowing what makes the individual tense or uncomfortable. Action involves re-patterning certain activities or a resolve to seek clarification of ambiguous aspects of the organizational role. Diet, exercise, yoga, biofeedback, and meditation are other suggested alternatives. Organizational methods include maintaining clear communciations, the establishment of unambiguous job demands, and properly planned divisions of labor for managers. Another method is using increased participation in decision-making (participation in trivial decisions only, however, can actually increase stress).

Increased attention to organizational stress can be the most important step for a manager to ensure employee effectiveness and health.

Ivancevich, J.M. & Matteson, M.T. Optimizing human resources: A case for preventive health and stress management. Organizational Dynamics, Autumn 1980, 5-25.

Stress has been defined as the body's physical, mental, and chemical reactions to the daily occurrences that affect a person. Job-related stress has gained much attention recently because companies are beginning to realize that stress can be costly to a business and that it has resulted in high absentee rates, poor employee performance, excessive drinking, irritability, and poor health. Many organizations are trying to combat job-related stress by initiating programs that focus on preventive health and stress management. The organizations that have implemented these types of programs have found that there is an overall positive effect. These programs have helped recruiting efforts, improved overall physical fitness, and have generated positive public interest. A preventive health and stress management program needs the support of its top management. Once the program is underway, it is important to encourage employees to discuss feelings of stress. Sometimes, just by discussing the subject, stress can be alleviated. Self-awareness in managing stress must also be emphasized. It is crucial for a person to be aware of their own physical and mental condition in order to be alert to personal signals from the body that may indicate excessive stress.

Many companies and agencies utilize the philosophy of management by objectives (MBO's) as a technique in the management of stress. By jointly and cooperatively setting realistic goals, managers and subordinates clarify role expectations and open up the lines of communication. An increasing number of companies are making provisions so that their employees can benefit from recreational facilities. Xerox, Rockwell International, Pepsi Cola, and other companies have spent thousands of dollars for gyms that are equipped with the most modern equipment. Some companies such as McDonald's provide biofeedback facilities for stress reduction. In the future, more companies will be offering programs to aid in preventive health and stress management because it is beneficial in improving the lives of employees and production will be improved as a result.

Jacobson, D. Fatigue-producing factors in industrial work and pre-
reitrement attitudes. Occupational Psychology, 1972, 46, 193-200.

A great deal of research has been conducted in the area of retirement. Much of it is based on individual attitudes toward retirement. Many of these studies, however, have relied solely on the retirement candidates to explain their willingness or reluctance to retire. Many of the respondents' responses were influenced by their wants and expectations. As a result, data on these factors has seldom been considered independently. Thus, the results associated with previous research was extended.

Subsequently, an exploratory study was conducted to examine the influences on attitudes toward retirement. Specifically, elements of physical strain inherent in actual work tasks and conditions were examined. The major hypothesis was that among older manual workers, a state of stress resulting from strenuous job demands and physical discomfort would be manifested by attitudes indicating a desire to find relief from the work situation.

The hypothesis was tested by rating the combined pressure of physical conditions and demands of work that are generally assumed to produce fatigue in industrial employment. The Rest Allowance Index was used to fulfill this requirement. Subjects consisted of 145 semi-skilled males from British factories, ages 55 to 65 years. For purposes of this study, job tasks were classified as heavy, moderate and light work. Results of the study supported the hypothesis.

Results indicated that subjects classified in the heavy category who preferred to retire at the pensionable age were greater than two times the percentage of those in the light category. The majority of those classified in the heavy and moderate jobs desired to retire before the retirement age if the decision rested solely with them. Respondents in the heavy category also thought that the retirement age for their jobs should be below the pensionable age. There was, however, a difference in the proportion of men in the heavy and light jobs who believed that retirement age should not be based on the job but on each individual's desire and ability. When asked how they thought of themselves as far as age is concerned, more than three-quarters of the subjects refused to identify themselves in terms of the options offered (elderly, old, very old). Some, however, identified themselves in terms of the options offered. More than half of the subjects neither referred to themselves as old or young, but identified themselves as middle-age. In the area of health, the majority of the respondents indicated that they had good health. Some, however, indicated that their health was fair; others described their health as poor. When questioned about retirement, those who desired to retire at the age of pension believed that retirement would have a positive affect on their health. On the other hand, those subjects who were work-oriented accepted the opposite view.

Johnson, T.W. & Stinson, J.E. Role ambiguity, role conflict and satisfaction: Moderating effects of individual differences. Journal of Applied Psychology, 60, 1975, 329-33.

A review of the literature indicates that role ambiguity and role conflict tend to be associated with lower job satisfaction, greater likelihood of voluntarily leaving the organization, and lower job performance. There is also some indication that not all workers respond negatively to role ambiguity and role conflict. Kahn et al. (1964) found a significant positive relationship between role conflict and job related tension for individuals classified as extroverts but no overall relationship between role conflict and job related tension. A positive relationship between role conflict and job related tension was found for people classified as flexible and no relationship was found for individuals classified as rigid.

The evidence indicates that different types of workers respond to role conflict and role ambiguity in different ways. The authors proposed to obtain further evidence by analyzing the moderating effects of need for achievement and need for independence on relationships between role conflict and role ambiguity and job satisfaction.

Ninety-two military officers and civil service workers were examined in this study. All subjects were engaged in administrative work and all were college graduates whose ages ranged from 23 to 60 years of age. Ninety-five percent were males. Questionnaires were administered under controlled conditions in small groups; anonymity was assured.

Role conflict and role ambiguity measures were derived from a 30 item instrument developed by Rizzo et al. (1970). Examples of items on are: "I feel certain about how much authority I have," and "I work under incompatible policies and guidelines." Need for independence was measured by using the short form of an instrument developed by Vroom (1960) for his study of personality determinants of the effect. Need for achievement was measured using an instrument developed by Friss and Knox (1972) which contains seven items measuring the extent to which subjects have goals and strive to accomplish tasks as quickly as possible.

Job satisfaction was measured in two different ways. One utilized an overall satisfaction instrument developed by Brayfield and Rothe (1951). It includes 18 items whose response alternatives are on a 5 point scale. Specific job satisfaction was measured using the scale from the Role Orientation index (Johnson & Graun, 1973). This scale contains seven items rated on a three point scale.

Results indicated singnificant negative correlations between person role conflict and both overall job satisfaction and intrinsic satisfaction, between feedback ambiguity and both overall and intrinsic satisfaction, and between task ambiguity and both overall and intrinsic satisfaction for the total sample. Correlations between inter-sender conflict and satisfaction measures were not significant.

Different types of individuals respond differently to role ambiguity and role conflict. The results indicate that role conflict and role ambiguity should not be viewed as uniformly aversive states. This study also demonstrates the need for more extensive studies in this area. Research results are only suggestive, not conclusive.

Kanter, R.M. Why bosses turn bitchy. Psychology Today, May 1976, 56-67, 88-90.

Traditionally, researchers have looked to sexual differences for explanations of survey results that revealed that female workers have lower job aspirations, less commitment to their jobs, and a higher emphasis on friendship than their male co-workers. Women were thus labeled as non-assertive, unable to handle power, and as choosing to hide success to retain their traditional femininity.

This article advocates that the job makes the woman or the man, not gender, childhood experiences or educational training. The structure of an organization and how it deals with three areas has a tremendous impact on the personality in the job. The areas are opportunity, power and tokenism.

One large corporation investigated 111 hourly employees in white collar jobs concerning their attitudes toward promotion. Female employees were found less motivated. Of course, over 2/3 of the women were secretaries and clerks in dead-end jobs, and seldom had a secretary moved up to professional ranks. Jobs without opportunity for advancement depress men and women. It is no surprise that workers in routine, unchallenging positions adopt "values that rationalize the reality of their roles."

Close friends often become surrogate reinforcers to fill the voids of advancement and challenge. The social side of the job takes on greater importance and promotes an "us" versus "them" attitude toward authority and outsiders. This alientation toward authority is interpreted by management as disinterest in promotion and the vicious cycle is complete.

Even when and if promoted, many female professionals are scrutinized, guarded and deprived of granted system power. Without authority or backing by the organization, the frustrated, powerless manager turns to punitive measures to accomplish goals through other people, and for doing this, she is said to be 'acting just like a woman' when in essence she is simply acting as any insecure person would.

Because of their numbers, women in managerial roles, more often than not, are merely tokens. Because of this role, they attract attention, their differences are emphasized, and they are constantly reminded of their proper places. The token thus resorts to expected sterotypic behavior in order to gain the group's trust. By behaving in this manner, tokens reinforce their peer's attitudes toward them, thus keeping the token numbers to a minimum and perpetuating the problems inherent in sexism.

However, tokenism doesn't play favorites; even men are susceptible. Unless the vicious cycle of lack of opportunity, powerlessness and tokenism is broken, there will be no lasting change and bosses will continue to turn bitchy.

Karp, H.B. & Nickerson, Jr., J.W. Motivator-hygiene theory as a predictor of job turnover. Personnel Psychology, 1973, 26, 377-384.

The purpose of this study was to test Herzberg's motivator-hygiene theory as a predictor of job turnover.

A sample of the black working poor (N=50) was randomly selected from Census Tract 00042 (Department of Commerce). This sample was selected specifically because of a suspected low level of job stability.

Each interviewee was asked to recount two critical incidents describing a happy or unhappy work experience. Consistent with Herzberg's methodology and using the revised patterned inventory (Karp, 1969), each critical incidence was content analyzed, coded, and reconciled by three judges to insure the realiability of the data. These data were then subjected to chi square analyses to determine the motivational adjustment of the sample.

Each individual was then asked to respond to the job motivation inventory (JMI). The JMI was originally developed by Kahoe (1966), and it consisted of two parts of 72 items each. The first part asked for a response to the items in view of summer or part-time employment. The second part elicited a response to the same items in view of future employment. The scores of the two parts added together yielded a total score depicting motivator orientation for the individual. The same procedure was followed to yield a measure of hygiene orientation.

Sheridan (1969) determined that the first part of the JMI asked questions about the respondents' attitudes while the second part asked about lifestyle. Sheridan thus used only the scores on the second part to determine independent measures of motivation or hygiene orientation.

Each respondent in the present sample had an independent measure of the following:

1) perception of motivators on his present job (satisfaction);
2) perception of hygiene on his present job (dissatisfaction);
3) how much motivation he/she would need to be fully satisfied (motivator orientation);
4) how much hygiene he would need to experience no dissatisfaction (hygiene orientation).

The scores were obtained by subtracting the scores from the first part, a measure of satisfaction or dissatisfaction from the second part, the amount that would totally satisfy (or avoid dissatisfaction), to yield a measure of present perceived deprivation.

Along with demographics, critical issues, and JMI scores, a measure was taken on the number of jobs held in the part five years. This was the dependent variable for the study.

The hypotheses were formally stated as follows:

H_{1a} The sample will associate motivator factors with satisfying experiences significantly more than with dissatisfying experiences.

H_{1b} The sample will associate hygiene factors with dissatisfying experiences significantly more than with satisfying experiences.

H_2 There will be a significant positive relation between motivator deprivation and number of jobs held.

H_3 There will be a significant positive correlation between hygiene deprivation and the number of jobs held.

The hypotheses stating that this sample would perceive motivators as a source of satisfaction and hygiene as a source of dissatisfaction were confirmed at a highly significant level. The hypothesis stating that there would be a significant positive relationship between motivator deprivation and the number of jobs held was significantly confirmed. The hypotheses stating that there would be a significant relationship between hygiene deprivation and turnover were confirmed.

The motivator and hygiene perception scores do indicate how much satisfaction and dissatisfaction are actually perceived on the job, but not to what extent the individual is disturbed by it.

Keenan, A. & McBain, G.D.M. Effects of Type A behavior, intolerance of ambiguity, and locus of control on the relationship between role stress and work-related outcomes. Journal of Occupational Psychology, 52, 1979, 277-285.

A number of recent studies have shown that role stress is associated with a variety of worker attitudes and behavior. Types of role stress at work that have implications in these relationships are most commonly role ambiguity, role conflict and role overload.

Role amgibuity is defined as a result of unclear or insufficient information about job duties and responsibilities. Role conflict is a result of incompatible dmands from two or more people or differences between a person's internal standards of behavior and what is required of him on the job. Role overload indicates a condition in which the individual is faced with a set of obligations which, taken as a whole, requires him to do more than he is able in the time available.

Although a number of organizational factors will influence the amount of role stress experienced by a person, there are also personality predispositions of the individual that will affect the way he/she responds to role stress. This conclusion is based on research findings of studies conducted by Friedman and Roseman who classified individuals in terms of two contrasting types of behavior patterns shown as Type A and Type B behaviors. In this article the authors report a study that was designed to explore the possible influence of personality traits on the absolute amount of role stress individuals expereince in their work, and the relationship between the level of role stress experienced and psychological strain.

The following variables were included in the study: Personality (Type A personality, intolerance of ambiguity, locus of control); role stress (role ambiguity, role conflict and role overload); and psychological strain (job dissatisfaction and tension at work).

Each of these variables were defined and measured by specific scales. They study was done with 90 middle managers who were all in similar levels of organizational hierarchies but who had different job descriptions. The subjects' ages varied between 30 and 45; a majority were males. The data consisted of self-report questionnnaires that were administered in an in-company training course.

The results indicate that role ambiguity is significantly correlated with both tension and job satisfaction. Role conflict was not correlated with either of these variables. Role overload was positively associated with tension at work, but not with job satisfaction. Type A behavior was significantly and positively related to the amount of perceived role overload, as predicted. However, Type A behavior was not significantly related to either tension or to job satisfaction Intolerance of ambiguity was not correlated with role ambiguity; therefore, the hypothesis that those high on intolerance of ambiguity would tend to report lower levels of role ambiguity was not supported. Finally, locus of control was not signficantly correlated with perceived role ambiguity so that this hypothesis also failed to receive support.

In conclusion, the results of this study support the view that role stress does not exert uniformly adverse affects on all individuals. Further study of both individuals and of different forms of role stress is required if substantial progress is to be made towards providing those engaged in administering organizations with the tools to minimize the adverse consequences of role stress on both individuals and organizations.

Kimes, J.D. Handling stress in the accounting profession.
Management Accounting, 59, 1979, 17-23.

The social readjustment rating scale was developed to messure life stresses and to correlate these with illness and major life changes within the individual. Alvin Toffler has stated that stress comes from physical and mental overload of the organism's adaptive systems and decision making processes. As the complexities of life grow with each generation, it is important that everyone learn as much about stress as possible.

Heart trouble, high blood pressure, ulcers, and perhaps even cancer may be linked to stress. Type A's, known to be extraordinarily competitive, aggressive, and impatient, are at higher risk to develop heart disease than are less competitive persons. These people are commonly known as "high-strung." The stress they feel is born out of frustration over failure to achieve.

Too often, those suffering from tension seek relief in the wrong way, namely alcohol and drugs. This process leads to an accumulation of tension, causing the individual to enter a negative spiral that could result in a psychosomatic illness, or one such as high blood pressure, asthma, peptic ulcer, or even a psychiatric disorder. Stress can cause an involuntary change in the personality which may be first identified as a neurosis. However, if we recognize that our behaviors are often to blame them we can start correcting them.

Transcendental Meditation offers a way to relax and escape the tension we place on ourselves. Two twenty-minute sessions per day are advised. All that is required is a comfortable place to sit and a clearing the mind of all thought. By adopting a secret word or phrase, which a person repeats on every exhalation, a fixed state of relaxation is acheived. This restful state, called hypometabolism, causes the bodily resources to be less taxed and reduced oxygen consumption. Meditation has been called a "super nap" because of the restful benefits of it.

Other ways to reduce stress include taking better care of our bodies and not abusing them as we normally do. The article includes several such suggestions.

Kobasa, S.C. Personality and resistance to illness. American Journal of Community Psychology, 7(4), 1979, 413-423.

The increased interest in the area of stress and its related symptoms is tremendous. Researchers have sought the causes of stress only to conclude that there are numerous causes. Within the last 20 years, however, there has been a wealth of research conducted on individuals who become ill as a result of significant stressful life events. On the other hand, those individuals who have not suffered repeated illness as a result of stress that may be equally serious have received little, if any recognition. Some researchers warn against relating illness to stress because of reported low correlations. Yet, the media insists that the public avoid illness by avoiding stressful life events. Another view concludes that the individual who suffers some illness as a result of stress is characterized as passive. This individual, unlike one who suffers no illness relative to stressful life events, has no control over his life. The environment dictates his future. If this is true, then the personality of the individual is an issue to be considered as a cause of stress.

It is of no benefit to anyone to continue to harp on the negative consequences of stress if there is in fact something that can be done to counteract these effects. If it is true that certain personality characteristics can ameliorate the resultant illness due to stress, then it would seem worthwhile to try to acquire these characteristics. A study was completed in lieu of the personality issue. It focused primarily on ways to improve the personality to deter illness, rather than on describing negative personality characteristics that cause illness.

Three hypotheses were developed prior to the study. The first was that highly stressed individuals who remain healthy, as opposed to highly stressed individuals who get sick, believe that they can control whatever situation evolves. Secondly, these individuals are very much involved and committed to what is happening in their lives. Lastly, it was hypothesized that the highly stressed, healthy individual views changes in his life as an opportunity for growth.

Subjects for this study consisted of middle and upper level executives from a major metropolitan area, all of whom were experiencing high stress levels. All were asked to complete two questionnaires. The first, the Schedule of Recent Life Events, dealt with stressful life events; the second, the Seriousness of Illness Survey, dealth with symptomatology. Together, the extensive scope of these test instruments contain a series of stressful life events and general disease syndromes. Subjects were asked to respond to these items indicating recurrence and the month that they experienced the stress and illness relative to the previous three years. Results of these questionnaires revealed a great deal of evidence supporting a correlation between stress and illness.

Following completion of the questionnaires, two groups were formed from the results. One group was high in stress but low in illness. The second group, like the first, also had a high stress level. Unlike the first group, however, this group was high in illness. In the final analysis, there were no important variations between the two groups. Results indicated homogeneity on demographic characteristics believed to improve coping with stress.

To test the personality hypotheses, a questionnaire combining all parts of the five standardized tests were designed. Subjects were asked to complete this questionnaire. In addition, they were asked questions regarding their perceptions of stress in their lives. Results indicated that when compared to the norm, these executives experienced a moderate amount of illness within the previous three years.

Unlike the demographic variables, personality variables yielded important distinctions. High stress/low illness subjects were distinguished by their sense of commitment to self, their sense of vigorousness about life, their sense of meaningfulness, and their internal locus of control. They also described personal aspects of their lives to be less stressful than did high stress/high illness subjects. Further, it was shown that for the same levels of stress, subjects who do not become ill fell less threatened than those who do become ill.

It is possible to remain healthy under a significant amount of stress. To do this, it is necessary that one be aware of his/her values, goals and capabilities. Several other factors are pertinent to the individual who escapes illness. It may be helpful to consider the personality characteristics of the high stress/low illness individual instead of attempting to escape stress all together. More research needs to be done. In addition, the media should report on those individuals who stay in good health despite the stress they experience rather than reporting merely on those who suffer illness as a result of stressful life events.

Kolgrof, R. Accent on stress. Industrial Distribution, 69, Jan. 1979, 73.

Everyone is subject to stress. Somehow the idea has taken root that if you are not subject to stress, you can't hold your head up as a member of the 'active society'. Uncontrolled stress can produce social and medical problems to the extent that it kills.

The salesman is especially prone to stress. He experiences it each work day, never leaving home without it. The ability to perform under stress has almost become a necessary prerequisite for a sales position. The unrealistic amount of stress that the salesperson may sometimes experience can have debilitating effects if he/she is unprepared for it.

Stress cannot be avoided. It is necessary, therefore, that one be alert to warning signs, including: 1) chronic irritability, 2) restlessness, 3) moodiness, 4) excessive quietness, 5) excessive partying, and 6) heavy smoking. If the warning signals are acknowledged as they appear, many of the devastating effects can be curtailed.

To cope with stress, it is not always necessary that one make great sacrifices. Some suggestions for handling stress include: 1) avoid feeling helpless; 2) take stock in yourself; 3) face up to tension; 4) watch your daily rhythms; 4) take frequent physical breaks; 5) get enough sleep; 6) maintain your sense of humor and perspective; 7) talk and confide to those close to you; and 8) know your tension triggers.

Kuhn, D.G., Slocum, J.W. & Chase, R.B. Does job performance affect employee satisfaction? Personnel Journal, June 1971, 50, 445-459, 485.

A number of studies have produced conflicting results with respect to the relationship between employee attitudes and the level of performance on the job. In order to rectify this confusion Lawler and Porter adopted a different view of the relationship between performance and satisfaction. To them, satisfaction, rather than causing increased performance was in fact caused by it. It was posited that good performance attracted rewards. Intrinsic rewards satisfied higher order needs and extrinsic rewards accommodated lower order needs. The impact of these rewards, however, is somewhat moderated by the individual's expectation of what is an equitable reward. Therefore, the individual's satisfaction can be seen not only as a function of the magnitude and frequency of the rewards but also his expectation of the reward. In other words, one could reward someone with a day off when he/she felt two days off would be acceptable; hence, he/she would not be satisfied.

Research has also shown that higher order needs are more closely related to job performance in managerial positions. The present study attempted to test this at operative levels of employment. A needs satisfaction questionnaire was administered to 184 operative employees in the steel industry. They were asked to document how much of a specific need they felt was presently in the job and how much should be a part of the job. Their performance levels were assessed by rates of pay. Findings indicated that unlike managerial positions, operatives found lower order needs more important (i.e. security and social needs) and performance was directly related to the satisfaction of these needs.

This study, in combination with previous studies, indicates that supervisors need to be acutely aware of the varying needs of their workers at different levels. Such evidence appears to provide support for the differential treatment of first line superviosrs and operative employees.

Langer, S. Uptight: Overload puts you under stress. Industry Week, 1970, 166(1), 101.

Prevention strategies are constantly being sought that will eliminate stress. It is a fact, however, that no one can avoid stress entirely. Often, one attempts to run away from the situation only to discover that he has ventured in to another stressful predicament. There are circumstances that elicit inescapable stress. Nevertheless, it is essential that one be alert to the warning signs of oncoming stress.

Stress consciousness is a serious matter. There is a limit to the amount of stress anyone can undergo. The amount of stress one can endure may increase or decrease relative to the situation. It is best, therefore, to deal with each situation as it develops.

Stress reduction may involve a change in routine. Care must be taken, however, to avoid an equally stressful activity in the process of altering one's routine. A quiet hour in the work day could also reduce the possibility of overstress. Stress management may even call for some form of counseling and therapy. Whatever strategy is utilized, it is important that one know the cause of the stress he is experiencing. It is essential that effective treatment be undertaken.

La Rocco, J.M. & Jones, A.P. Co-workers and leader support as moderators of stress-strain relationships in work situations. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 1978, 63(5), 629-634.

Social support represents one of the most likely and effective means of alleviating the negative effects of job related stress. Not only can social support relieve the effects of job stress and strain, it can also protect the individual from these stressors.

This study explored relationships between job stress and social support support both direct and moderated relationships with a variety of negative outcomes such as job dissatisfaction, lowered self-esteem, intentions to leave the organization, and increased illness. A questionnaire was used which derived responses from 3,725 navy enlisted personnel and which consisted of 35 composites describing perceived characteristics of the work environment. Potential moderating effects of social support were analyzed by both multiple regression and subgrouping analysis techniques.

The results indicated that the effects of support are positive and additive rather than interactive or buffering. Social support from supervisors and co-workers is positively related to more favorable job attitudes and health. Higher levels of support and reduced levels of stress were each related to the achievement of various organizationally desirable outcomes. It was also found that support, whether from one's leader or peers, did not appear to be an effective means of removing the negative influences of stress produced by conflict and uncertainty. However, there was evidence that leader and co-worker support were able to alleviate some of the undesirable outcomes normally associated with stress.

Lazarus, R.S. Little hassles can be hazardous to health. Psychology Today, 1981, July, 58-62.

Research has generally ignored the effect of frequent minor hassles while concentrating on the effects of more dramatic events of life. Hassles are defined as the irritating, frustrating or distressing incidents that occur in our everyday transactions with the environment. A study at the University of California at Berkeley found that the daily hassles are more closely linked to and may have a greater effect on our moods and our health than the major misfortunes of life. Many of the previous studies on stress operate on the premise that major life changes (death, marriage, retirement, being fired) produce a greater chance that the individual will become physically or mentally ill. This approach has come under fire recently because stress can also be connected with boredom, continuing tension within families, and isolation.

The response to hassles varied according to personality, coping style, other resources and how the rest of the day has gone. Psychological stress depends on a transaction between the situation and the person. In addition to their immediate effect, major life changes can create a ripple effect of continuing hassles.

Assessing the effects of uplifts was another aspect considered. It was expected that uplifts would serve as emotional buffers against physical or psychological difficulties. A hassles questionnaire (including daily hassles and uplifts) was given to a sample of 100 (48 men and 52 women) mainly white, middle-aged, middle-class and Protestant subjects with upper incomes and education. In addition, a life events scale, a health status questionnaire, The Hopkins Symptom Checklist, the Bradburn Morale Scale, and daily logs were used to monitor the effects of daily hassles and uplifts. As expected, the more frequent and intense the hassles incurred, the poorer the overall mental and physical health. Moreover, major events were found to have some long-term effects, but the hassles seemed to have more of an impact on health on a short-term basis, particularly for men. Contrary to expectation, uplifts did not seem to buffer the effects of hassles; indeed, for women, hassles seemed to have an unexplainable negative effect on emotional and psychological health.

Levinson, H. On executive suicide. Harvard Business Review, July-August 1975, 118-122.

Suicide always raises the question, "Why?" The question is especially important during a recession when the suicide rate always rises.

What intense pressures for achievement or approval force an executive to comply with actions that violate his conscience? What rigid self-demands make him think that death is the only way out of his dilemmas? Why do some executives attach so much importance to their roles? Why are their aspirations so high and crucial to them that if they face business reverses, their only solution is to punish themselves with long hours of fatiguing work and perhaps eventually with death?

These questions are explored in this article in order to examine the character of the executive likely to be vulvernable to suicide, and to suggest why suicide can appear as a way out to a dynamic individual. It also discusses some ways in which people can recognize the symptoms of severe depression in themselves and in others, in order to prevent suicide.

Some of the common elements surrounding suicidal behavior are intelligence, ambition, disappointment and uncomprehending guilt. Executives are described as men and women of high aspiration. They are very ambitious, seeking power, prestige, and money, and nearly always they are competing intensely against other executives. They also have unconscious pressures for attainment with high levels of aspirations and frequent feelings of being a long way from achieving their goals, resulting in constant feelings of inadequacy. Failures in narrowing the gap between the ego-ideal and self-image of a person increase his anger at himsel which is experienced as depression. Depression in its extreme form leads to suicide.

The problem of high aspiration, high ego-ideal and low self-image start very early in life and contain signficiant components of irrationality. The infant's reactions to frustration is interpreted as his own inadequacies and therefore he is prone to blame himself. Those who may be coping with repressed childhood rage in this way demand much of themselves, and much is demanded of them. It is pointed out that for those highly oriented towards achievement (scholastic, professional or organizational) there is a constant threat of failure hanging over them. Such persons are vulvernable to defeats that move their self-image farther away from their ego ideals, increasing their disappointment in themselves. They get angry at themselves, become highly self-critical, feel inadequate, guilty and depressed. These feelings may finally lead some to self destruction. When a conscientious executive with tremendous self-demands recognizes that he is failing to cope effectively with a situation under circumstances in which he must control intense negative feelings, he may see limited alternatives. Without professional help, the only ways to escape from this apparently hopeless situation may be developing psychosomatic symptoms, attacking himself in the form of accidents or, in the extreme, committing suicide.

Some recommendations are made as how to recognize and cope with threats to the self-image that may precipitate depression and eventually self-destructive behavior:

1. One should cultivate a range of interests to which he can devote himself. He cannot be equally competent in all of them, but when things go badly in one area, he can always turn to another for gratification.

2. Accurate, honest and frequent performance appraisal is important to enable the executive to maintain a perspective on himself.
3. When a problem seems insurmountable it should be broken down into components, so that they can be tackled one at a time, with help or consultation from others.
4. One constructive way to avoid a buildup of pressures is through clarification of what is and is not the subordinate's responsibility.
5. One should be alert to signs of depression such as loss of appetite, weight loss, sleeplessness or exceesive fatigue, heavy drinking, excessive use of tranquilizers, inability to complete work, increasing irritability, slowness and dull quality in speech, repeated deep sighing and talk of suicide.

The person whose depression does not require hospitalization requires an atmosphere in which he can work on his problems with the support of his superiors and preferably with the involvement of others.

When a person suffers a loss or defeat and becomes depressed he usually does one of five things:

1) He acts positively to narrow the gap between his goals and his present position. (the best course to follow but the most difficult).
2) He becomes more irritable.
3) He seeks to escape his feeling of futility and find solace in religion, counsel or good works.

4) He tries to control or deny his feelings on the assumption that ultimately they will somehow go away or that he can overcome his problems.

5) He atones for his supposed failures or sins. He can punish himself by having accidents or, if driven to extremes, he can kill himself.

Levinson, H. When executives burn out. Harvard Business Review, May/June 1981, 73-81.

The military calls it battle fatigue but for those individuals in civilian professions who experience intense feelings of anger, helplessness, and total psychological and physical exhaustion on the job, the term most commonly used to describe these conditions is known as 'burn-out'. It has been found that most people, at some point in their career, experience burnout. People experience burnout after expending a great amount of energy on a project without obtaining any tangible results for all of the effort that went into the task. When a professional reaches the stage of being burned-out, he will not or cannot continue doing what they had previously done. Individuals who are involved in the helping professions are prime targets for burnout. Sufferers of burnout usually exhibit signs of irritability, chronic fatigue, and display anger at those persons who are making demands. Physiological symptoms also occur in those people experiencing burnout. Frequent headaches, lingering colds, and a suspicious attitude are commonly experienced by those who have burned-out.

Management has discovered many useful methods in preventing the occurrence of burnout. It has been found that retreats are very beneficial for employees to air their feelings in a productive manner. Companies have initiated programs to reward employees for their accomplishments. The flexibility that change allows on the job can be used as a deterrent to burnout. A change of pace, or a change in the routine of the job can enable an employee to look forward to a new challenge. Candid discussions regarding the burnout issue can also be very beneficial in knowing that it can happen and knowing how to cope with it when it does.

Levison, R.E. How to conquer the panic of change. Management Review, 66, I, July 1977, 20-24.

Dealing with change fills many employees with apprehension and fear. Questions immediately come to the worker's mind when the way "we've always done" it is no longer the way it is to be done. How will this change effect me? Will I learn the new system? Could my job be in jeopardy? What about my raise? What will change next? Change seems to perpetuate change and as change accelerates, mastering its effects becomes increasingly important and necessary.

The following five guidelines might avoid change altogether; if not, they will at least prepare workers for the impact of the change:

1) Dig out the causes of panic. Is the panic based on not knowing the reason for the change? Or could it be a lack of self-confidence to attack this new challenge? Is complacency, or a lack of desire to exert effort toward a new system, a source of the panic? Will this change make me look bad?
2) Calculate the net profit or loss. Weigh the pros and cons; a given change could be profitable. Clarify your situation so that the decision for action is more easily seen.
3) Accentuate the positive. "A danger forseen is half avoided."
4) Immunize yourself against present shock (panic of change). Initiate the changes; your changes are easier to follow.
5) Take the early bird approach. Change or be changed...fight it or join it.

Locke, E.A. Satisfiers and dissatisfiers among white-collar and
blue-collar employees. Journal of Applied Psychology,
1973, 58(1), 67-76.

The present study (consisting of two samplings) was designed to compare the determinants of satisfaction among white and blue-collar workers by using a critical incident approach, and eliminating the confusion caused by classifying incidents sometimes according to events and sometimes according to agent. The author attempted to replicate a study by Schneider and Locke (1971) which indicated that the same categories of events produced both satisfiers and dissatisfiers, although different agents were judged to be primarily responsible for these events (self for satisfying, others for dissatisfying).

In the first sample, each undergraduate student interviewed a blue-collar and a white-collar employee (matched in age, sex, length of time on job), and obtained descriptions of two satisfying and two dissatisfying incidents from each. The incidents were then classified and ranked in order of importance. In the second sampling, each student interviewed two white and two blue-collar employees, and obtained one incident from each. A similar ranking was then performed.

A motivator-hygiene dichotomy was established with each set of data, and a task-nontask dichotomy was formed by combining categories. A Chi-square test revealed no statistically significant evidence that good (satisfying) incidents were produced by different classes of events from bad (dissatisfying) incidents. In all samples the majority of both good and bad events were produced by motivators, and employees were more likely to take credit for good events, and to blame others for bad events.

The frequency data were combined to form a task category, a reward category, and a context category. Results of a Chi-square test showed a greater frequency of task events and significantly fewer reward and context events for white-collar employees.

In Study 1, the white-collar group showed a greater frequency of motivator events and fewer hygiene events that the blue-collar employees, and the trend was the same in Study 2. Significantly more self-agents and fewer non-self agents were mentioned by the white-collar employees.

The author noted that Friedlander's three-factor (task/reward/context) approach may be more useful to this type of analysis than Herzberg's motivator/hygiene dichotomy, and that the critical incidents method might be used to uncover sources of dissatisfaction within various occupations, organizations, or within single departments.

Locke, E.A. & Whiting, R.J. Sources of satisfaction and dissatisfaction among solid waste management employees. Journal of Applied Psychology, 1974, 59(2), 145-156.

White-collar workers are more likely to derive pleasure from intrinsic factors such as the work itself and work achievement, while blue-collar employees more often get pleasure from extrinsic factors such as physical or social working conditions and pay or security. In addition to supporting Herzberg's work (1957), these conclusions are also consistent with several recent studies on sources of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction which have used different sampling procedures.

The purposes of this study include an attempt to replicate earlier findings on white-collar/blue-collar differences using a nation-wide random sample of employees from a single industry, sold waste management; an attempt to test Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory using the revised incident classification system which utilizes separate classification by events and agents (what happened and who made it happen); a presentation of event-agent interactions on a category-by-category basis; and a comparison of solid waste employees to other occupational groups in terms of degree or amount of satisfaction (since waste collector is universally considered to be a "bad" job, satisfaction levels might be expected to be lower for these employees than those in most other fields).

Management representatives in 3,327 public and private solid waste collection agencies were interviewed on company policies and manpower. In approximately one out of three or four agencies, an attempt was made to conduct one employee interivew. The stratifying variabels for the employee sample were geographical region, public vs. private, and job level. Equal numbers of public and private employees were interviewed in each region. The five job levels were: managerial, clerical/secretarial supervisory/foreman, skilled labor, and unskilled labor. Each employee was randomly chosen from within each job category in each company.

The questionnaire had 46 items including demographic information, present job information, and rewards and attitudes. All open-ended items were coded independently by at least two coders.

The results showed a significant relationship between job levels and total satisfaction even when the effects of age, education, and tenure were partialled out. At the blue-collar level, garbage collectors appeared to be more (rather than less) satisfied with their jobs than workers at the same job level in other fields.

Herzberg's theory predicts that motivators are more likely to act as satisfiers than as dissatisfiers, while the opposite holds true for hygienes. The data show, however, that three of the seven motivators (task activity, amount of work and smoothness of work) are more likely to act as dissatisfiers than as satisfiers. Three other motivators (achievement, promotions, and responsibility) show a pattern in agreement with the Herzberg theory, while one category (recognition) shows no significant trend. For hygienes, money is more likely to act as a satisfier than as a dissatisfier, the opposite of Herzberg theory, while interpersonal atmosphere and working conditions show no significant trend. In general, motivators were more likely than hygienes to cause both satisfaction and dissatisfaction in the employee groups.

Results from the individual agent categories indicate that the self, the supervisor, and the organization are more likely to be seen as causing satisfier than dissatisfier events; the opposite is true for co-workers, subordinates, customers, and nonhuman agents (weather).

Herzberg has claimed that supervision and organizational policies are dissatisfiers; this study found results contrary to this contention.

Event-agent interactions indicate that the organization and the supervisor were viewed as causing the highest percentage of both satisfying and dissatisfying events.

In comparing blue-collar/white-collar sources of satisfaction, the secretarial/clerical employees were deleted since most were females. The other job categories were all male, thus leading to a confounding of sex with job level. Considering the satisfier events, blue-collar employees (unskilled and skilled employees) were more likely to cite amount of work, money, interpersonal atmosphere, and working conditions as satisfiers, while white-collar supervisory and managerial staff were more likely to derive satisfaction from smoothness of work, achievement, and promotion. Considering dissatisfaction, the blue-collar employees were more often dissatisfied by amount of work and working conditions, while white-collars were dissatisfied by the lack of smoothness and the lack of achievement in their work.

Considering the results for agents, it is indicated that white-collar employees were more prone to see the self and subordinates as causing satisfaction, while blue-collars were more likely to see the organization as a source of satisfaction. White collar employees frequently attributed dissatisfying events to subordinates and the union, while blue-collars more often saw their supervisors and co-workers as agents of dissatisfaction.

Blue-collar employees more often took the job because they needed a job whereas white-collar employees were interested in the content of the job. In addition, blue-collar employees were more likely to be thinking of quitting and of off-the-job activities, which may be linked to their greater dissatisfaction with the job.

Several suggestions are given for the higher satisfaction levels of solid waste employees as compared to other fields. These include higher pay, considerable autonomy and freedom from supervision for skilled and unskilled workers, variety of task, freedom to control pace, choice of methods of work, and shorter working hours.

Management stress: Sifting fact from myth. Management Review, May, 1979, 35.

The American Management Association (AMA) found in a recent survey of 2,659 top and middle managers that managers who normally have more work than they can handle, who never are sure what their authority is, or who always feel caught in the middle on important issues are in the minority. The study points out that the managers surveyed indicated they felt major stresses fairly infrequently; in particular, top executives expressed more control over stress-producing events than lower echelon managers. In situations away from work, the managers reported few pressures other than ordinary events. Few managers said they react by heavy drinking, poor job performance, or other nonproductive behaviors. Most cope in beneficial ways.

The most prevalent practice (used by 90% of Top Management and 86% of middle management) was to delegate some of the work instead of carrying the entire workload alone. Closely following this response were efforts to analyze the stress-producing situation and establishing goals and priorities to avoid task crunches in the afternoon. Other techniques included recognizing signs of stress and situations inducing pressure, and breaking routine as an outlet. Interestingly, the most frequently used techniques were not judged the most effective by the executives. The highest in this category was analyzing the situation and choosing what to worry about. Next came delegating responsibility, followed by setting priorities. Other strategies judged to have some effectiveness were physical exercise, developing sensitivity to stress responses, and engaging in engrossing nonwork activities.

The following is a series of suggestions for coping with stress:

1. Predispositions and attitudes acquired in childhood become part of our emotional makeup, and they are very difficult to influence or change.
2. Executives should recognize their physical and emotional reactions to events, interpret every situation as objectively as possible, and assess rationally what one can do that might reduce stress.
3. One should choose the kind of environment that suits one's personality, a work setting which one feels comfortable in.
4. Pace yourself to avoid fatigue and stress; setting priorities is essential.
5. Balance work and play.
6. Superiors should avoid unrealistic deadlines and workloads imposed on their subordinates.
7. Superiors should provide feedback to subordinates.
8. Top administrators should weigh the pro's and con's of deliberately induced conflict and restraint of creativity.
9. Job duties should be well defined, authority to make decisions should be commensurate with responsibilities, and an atmosphere of real opportunity and advancement should be promoted.

Mangione, T.W., & Quinn, R.P. Job satisfaction, counterproductive behavior and drug use at work. Journal of Applied Psychology, 1975, 60(1), 114-116.

The purpose of this article was to determine the accuracy of the assumption that counterproductive behavior and drug use at work are symptoms of job dissatisfaction.

The research utilized data collected through a survey of 1,327 wage and salary workers. The workers were interviewed personally in their homes. The majority of questions were about work related values such as quality of employment, work related problems, reactions to the job in terms of job satisfaction, self-esteem, depression, physical health, and life satisfaction. Toward the end of the interview workers were given a pencil-and-paper questionnaire containing several questions about counterproductive behavior and one question concerning drug use at work. Age, sex, and overall satisfaction with jobs were also indicated.

The results showed that job satisfaction was significantly related to counterproductive behavior and drug use at work only among one subsample, men 30 years or older. The conclusion is that among these individuals there is an association, perhaps causal, between job satisfaction and both counterproductive behavior and drug use at work.

Marshall, J. & Cooper, C. Work experiences of middle and senior managers: The pressure and satisfactions. Management International Review, 1979, 19(1), 81-96.

Research has indicated that stress exists both for middle and senior managers. While it was once thought that stress was experienced only by senior managers, there is now evidence that middle managers also experience role ambiguity, conflict, and lack of mobility. What stress exists at different managerial levels and what are the different sources of pressure are examined in this study.

The conceptual model on which this research is based consists of two structural factors in relation to stress: 1) person-environment fit; a stress reaction depends on how the individual interprets the threatening or challenging event, and 2) almost all potential sources of stress are also potential sources of satisfaction (i.e., facing a challenge may be initially stressful but in the long-term may be necessary for personal growth and satisfaction).

As part of a two-phase project, in-depth interviews were conducted with 55 managers and 40 managers' wives (middle and senior managers of a multinational company). Each interview covered work history, moving effects on worker and family, most stressful and satisfying elements of career, attitudes toward career development, and the role of the wife in the worker's career. More confidential information was then obtained through a questionnaire package which included items on personal demographics, personality (16PF Inventory), career demographics, and job and organizational characterisitcs (rated as a source of pressure or satisfaction). The manifestations of stress were assessed at two levels, psychological and physical. A second sample consisted of 186 middle and senior male managers, with an average age of 47, 70% of whom had been relocated. Three managerial sublevels were then distinguished within the sample: senior, middle, and lower middle. By using the data from the Job and Organizational Characterisitcs Questionnaire, cut-offs were established for mangers at risk based on the manifestation criteria of anxiety and physical ill health.

In general, the results indicated that lower and middle managers appeared to experience more symptoms of emotional and physical ill health than the senior managers. While the satisfaction of dealing with people and their problems increased with managerial level, middle managers reported the greatest pressure in dealing with the personal problems of others. These trends from the data were indicated: 1) pressure scores for senior managers were balanced by high satisfaction scores on related dimensions; scores of the middle managers did not indicate this; 2) pressures seem to peak at middle management levels; and 3) job satisfaction seems to increase dramatically between middle and senior management levels. The impact of work role, large organizations, work-home conflict, and career development elements are discussed. It is suggested that the satisfaction levels experienced by senior managers may be a matter of learning to accommodate intrinsic job factors and changing family responsibilities. Job redesign, organizational change, training and more effective communications are recommended as counteract stress conditions within organizations.

Marshall, J. & Cooper, C.L. Managers under stress. Management Today, Dec. 1976, 19-22.

Stress has long been recognized as a potential problem for the manager and thus his firm. Recent trends in the economy, including a 44% rise in executive unemployment, and in society at large, including the squeeze on managerial reward, have increased stress levels in an essential section of the community.

There are no comparative statistics in other settings, but the doubled service rates at the BUPA Managerial Health Center for counseling reflects the increasing stress in the business community. A major concern of mangers is that their job may be duplicated so that they are let go from the firm. In March, 1976, there were 42,000 managers out of work. This represents a 44% rise over the previous year.

It has become increasingly necessary for the individual manager to prove his indispensibility, by working longer and harder, doing jobs himself rather than delegating them, and by avoiding risks caused by questioning the system. The organization will avoid redundancy by restricting recruitment, however, this decreases flexibility and growth.

The obvious response to fear of unemployment is to cling to the job one has as tightly as possible. This attitude, combined with restricted recruitment, has sharply reduced inter-firm transfers. But mobility is essential with a scarce commodity such as expertise. During this recession there has been switch from career development to job security, as a preoccupation of many managers. Declining morale hurts the company because the job of manager is to coordinate and motivate. If the manger is not motivated, how can he motivate his co-workers?

Recent graduates are hard hit by the restrictions in recruiting.

Those lucky enough to be offered a position must pick from a limited field. This strips the industry of it's brightest hope, new potential.

Restrictions on what a manager can do come from higher echelons in the company and government rules and regulations. This powerlessness on the part of managers to make policy decisions causes stress because they are no longer in control of the position they are managing.

Martindale, D. Sweaty palms in the control tower. Psychology Today, 1977, 10(9), 70-75.

Air-traffic contollers at Chicago's O'Hare field wrestle like pilots in combat with 1900 flights a day. The job of juggling airliners and making snap decisions on which lives depend exacts a steep toll in stress-related diseases, nightmares, and acute anxiety. For some, it is a burden they cannot endure. In the last year, at least seven men have been carried out of the O'Hare control tower on stretchers, victims of acute hypertension. Most controllers there have already succumbed to one or more by-products of prolonged stress: ulcers, high blood pressure, arthritis, colitis, skin disorders, headaches, allergies, and upset stomachs. Other controllers struggle with more severe problems, such as alcoholism, depression, horrifying nightmares, and acute anxiety. Of the 94 controllers and trainees working at O'Hare, only two have been there more than 10 years. Most don't last five. The grueling pace, the split-second decisions, and the constant threat of mid-air collisions all take their toll.

Although much of the anxiety stems from the job itself, the O'Hare controllers see management in the Federal Aviation Administration as another source of problems. The controllers have filed suit against the FAA charging that understaffing, computer malfunctions, inadequate training programs, unrealistic transfer policy, and nerve-wrecking conditions were jeopardizing their health and, as a result, the safety of passengers who use the airport. Locked in an adversary relationship with their employers, the controllers at O'Hare have become increasingly distrustful of the FAA. Despite numerous stress-related disorders, few visit the local flight surgeon for fear that confidential information will be divulged to the FAA. Controllers contend that their supervisors also put them in a no-win situation by encouraging them to overlook certain standards and rules (e.g., properly spaced aircrafts vs. large volume and delays). But, according to the controllers, if an error is made or a near-miss occurs, the controller is disciplined for not applying the rules.

At O'Hare today, nearly two-thirds of the 94 men either have ulcers or show ulcer symptoms. Psychiatrist E. Benezra who has worked for six years with many of the controllers from O'Hare, believes a crisis intervention program is the answer. During a crisis, most people go through four distinct stages. There is a period of initial stress which produced increasing tension. Next comes a breakdown of the person's usual channels of communication and problem-solving. This is followed by a time of helplessness, disorganization, and confusion. Finally, the sufferer tries to resolve his problems, using whatever means he has available to him.

Crisis intervention is often called preventive psychiatry, since its primary purpose is to provide immediate help before a problem becomes acute. In many therapeutic relationships, the therapist is passive and detached; in crisis therapy, the counselor provides warmth, empathy and human feeling, as well as a practical-solving approach to the needs of those in trouble. Suicide-prevention centers and various telephone hot lines are common examples of the crisis-intervention approach.

Crisis intervention is only one proposal to ease the controllers' burden at O'Hare. Other professionals have suggested consciousness-altering programs such as Transcendental Meditation, yoga, self-hypnosis, and biofeedback to help the controllers handle their stress. The controllers themselves have asked for a few recreational facilities, perhaps something as simple as a dartboard or a punching bag in the back room.

McCarron, P.M. & Haakonson, N.H. Recent life change measurement in Canadian Forces pilots. Aviation Space and Environmental Medicine, 1982, 53(1), 6-13.

Research has been conducted to determine the relationship between "stressful life change events and their etiological role in the causation of physical and psychiatric disorders." Several scales were used to determine the frequency of occurrence of certain conditions and life changes/events. Canadian Air Force pilots were studied to establish a baseline for a scale. The study included three groups two control groups were selected from non-pilot and ground crew personnel who were matched for age with the pilots with the mean age being 33.3 years.

The purpose of the study was to determine the correlation of life change events with personal levels of stress which may increase the likelihood of human error while in the cockpit. The results of the study were not conclusive in assessing the coping ability of pilots as opposed to non-pilots. Some scales suggested that pilots have better coping abilities as a whole. This may be attributed to the type of training pilots receive as well as to their heightened awareness of health and use of positive health practices. The study suggests that the pilots have behaviors and life crises"that would normally predict health changes in over 50% of the general population." Pilots tend to experience a greater proportion of life changes and should therefore be considered at high risk. As a result, it is suggested that "the effect of excessive life changes as a contributing factor to personal stress and illness merits further attention if a screening tool is to be developed to assess and predict accident-prone aviators."

McGaffey, T.N. New horizons in organizational stress prevention approaches. The Personnel Administrator, 1978, 23(11), 26-32.

Stress disorders are costing organizations an estimated 17 to 25 billion dollars each year in terms of lost performance, absenteeism and health benefits. Hundreds of organizations are offering special programs to help reduce stress, such as biofeedback and Transcendental Meditation, to enhance employees' physical and emotional health and to provide them with better psychological and physical resilience to stress.

Current stress prevention efforts however have proven to be inadequate due to several factors. One of the problems with stress programs is that they are conducted on a voluntary basis so that there is no real guarantee that the employees who need the sessions the most would attend. Other problems include the generalized treatment approach used, so that everyone uses the same approach regardless of individual differences. Another problem is that there is a lack of early intervention. Often, an employee is well on his way to stress disorders before a program is instituted.

Another major problem of these programs is that they are not designed for systematic management control. These programs are not mutually inclusive of the organizations and the employees. They are not monitored with specific goals and measurable outcomes. This article introduces the EMPLOYEE ASSISTANCE PROGRAM (EAP), which is a new management control system for employee stress.

EAP is a stress intervention program that when combined with other stress prevention procedures can serve as an effective base for developing a comprehensive managerial system for combating organizational stress. It was developed over a 40 year period in industrial programs and was basically used to solve the stress related disorders of alcoholism. Factors which gave rise to EAP include the recognition that performance deficit is an extremely sensitive base for early detection and that rarely is there a single cause for employee stress disorders that produce performance deterioration.

The EAP is based on a Performance Contract, which means that the employee promises performances and reliability in return for benefits provided by the organization including pay, promotion opportunity and fringe benefits. Violation of this contract by the employee through lack of attendance or poor performance leads to the right of the organization to take corrective measures.

The first component of EAP consists of offering assistance to the employee to help him overcome the causal factors for poor performance. The employer still holds the right to impose sanctions if the employee refuses the offer of assistance and performance problems continue.

The author proceeds to list the basic elements of the EAP which include a policy statement, an integration of the union into the philosophy of assistance, definite work performance standards, diagnostic and referral sources, and availability of a comprehensive health model. A system of evaluation to gauge the impact of EAP and it's effectiveness should be devised.

Individuals and resources involved in the implementation of EAP include a role coordinator who provides information, explains company policy and motivates the employee to use EAP programs, a diagnostic and referral agent, and an array of care providing agencies and programs.

Implementation of EAP at Kennecot Copper in Ogden, Utah, provided data on 150 men. The employees averaged 12.7 months in treatment for conditions such as alcoholism. Data showed a 52 percent decrease in absenteeism, a 74.6 percent decrease in weekly indemnity, and a 55.3 percent decrease in heatlh medical surgical costs after treatment. Factors seen as contributing to these positive results include:

1. The treatment model is comprehensive.
2. Intervention is made on the basis of work performance, i.e., intervention before a person loses a job.
3. Determining an intervention system and a prevention system according to the types of stress disorders most commonly occurring in a particular setting may prove to be cost effective by stressing the areas most needed in a particular organization.

McKenna, J.F., Oritt, P.L., & Wolff, H.K. Occupational stress as a predictor in the turnover decision. Journal of Human Stress, 1981, 7(4), 12-17.

An individual who is dissatisfied with certain aspects of his employment is very likely to leave the position. Certain factors considered predictive of employee turnover/absenteeism are supervision, salary, and promotion. One factor, occupational stress, is usually determined relative to the individual's personality, Type A or Type B. Work-related factors such as task ambiguity, work overload, social support, and conflict have been demonstrated to have impact on worker stress.

A study conducted at a nursing home identified some of the factors which may create emotional or physiological stress for employees. High stress variables are low levels of feedback on the quality of the worker's performance, cost control efforts, cutbacks on staffing, increased governmental regulation, the literal life-and-death nature of the job, and technological obsolescence.

At this facility, 175 employees participated at a rate of 98%, exclusive of the administrative and professional personnel. The scales selected for use in the study were chosen to identify reasons for employee turnover. The Kraut scale positively correlated employee expectations with actual turnover. The Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire measures attitudes, while Porter's Questionnaire measures employee commitment. Another scale dealt with aspects of the work environment such as scheduling, task complexity and personnel policies. Perception of stress was measured by a special stress questionnaire.

Results of the study show a strong positive correlation between working conditions and employee satisfaction. There is greater employee commitment when a worker experiences satisfaction with his employment situation. Employee commitment is greatest in areas where there is professional or academic training used as a prerequisite for entry into the field. An individual who has invested much time, energy, and money into establishing his qualifications is less likely to leave his position suddenly when the work situation becomes difficult. One conclusion suggested that some of the variance in expected turnover was attributable to the interactive effect of occupational stress and professional position.

McLean, A.A. Job stress and the psychosocial pressures of change.
Personnel, 53(1), January-February, 1976, 40-49.

It has not been easy for management to accept the idea that work can adversely affect both the mental and physical health of workers. There is mounting interest in this area and it has come by many to be called "job stress."

A number of writers point to factors believed to be wrong with work in developed countries today, i.e., unemployment, long hours, and physical and emotional discomforts. These and many other variables have been indicated as prime stress factors; yet, as stressors, they seldom produce disability or clearly disordered health. Stressors that may stimulate mental disorders and produce unhealthy behavior in individuals are the emotional aspects of a job or the work environment.

A study conducted in the United States in 1972 by the Department of Health, Education and Welfare (Work in America) concluded that improvements in the quality of work life could help avoid illness and stimulate healthy behavior. But the task force also concluded that various aspects of work account for factors associated with heart disease, hypertension, and many other health problems.

Two factors help determine whether stressors will produce symptoms: the context in which an interaction takes place and the particular vulnerability of the individual at the time. The context may include social, physical or environmental variables and may be as broad as an economy or as small as the family unit. It may be industry-wide or limited to a single work organization or a specific plant. A context can be set by management policy or practices. There are contexts of the community with its social groups, civic and political organizations, churches, schools, etc. During an economic recession, stressors may be much more significant than when an individual's economic security is not threatened. If an industry closes, this may create stress, and the changing life of the family unit can be both a supporting or distracting entity.

Individual vulnerability to specific stressors varies widely, but it is even more important than context in determining reactions to factors in a job environment. The enduring personality characteristics of a person are major elements in setting the dimension of vulnerability. We must, therefore, recognize the background, genetic and developmental influences that makes each of us unique. Vulnerability varies with age, occupation, occupation level and education. A person of high educational achievement may be particularly susceptible to stressors in a low skilled job. Work requirements which do not meet an individual's biological rhythms can increase the person's vulnerability. Day to day events, moods, and reactions are influential in determining vulnerability to specific stressors and individual reactions to the environment.

All stressors appear to involve change in some way. A stressor may be a factor in the work environment which has not in itself changed, but which produces symptoms when vulnerability is increased. Factors in job stress may be summarized as follows:

Context	Vulnerability	Stressors
External	Internal	Change
Morale	Personality	Job related stress
Management	Age	Off the job stress
Economy	Occupation	
Security	Education	

The relationship between context, vulnerability, stressors and symptoms can be illustrated in various ways. The area where all factor groups overlap may be thought of as an individual's symptomatic response. This is illustrated by circles labeled context, vulnerability and stressors. Each of these groups of variabels are contact and fluid in motion, and each will vary symbolically in size. If the symbol of vulnerability shifts so there is no overlap, there are no symptoms because it takes some degree of vulnerability for a specific stressor to act. The same is true for the interaction of context and stressors. One can stand destructive stressors if the context is appropriate and vulnerability is low.

In this study a group of 865 employees at three levels of management in one company completed a questionnaire that asked about their satisfaction with work, how they perceived the stress of their tasks, and the extent of specific physical and emotional disabilities. Some twenty questions centered on anxiety levels, and all questions were structured to compare current feelings of the participants with how each had felt on the same issues three years before.

It was determined that there was no correlation between a shift in anxiety and items such as degree of satisfaction with salary, the number of hours worked, or the number of hours traveled between home and work. There were significant correlations between increases and descreases in anxiety and the individual's perception of the stress of his job, his satisfaction with his work, and reported physical or health problems. These results may be summarized as follows:

EMPLOYEES WITH INCREASES IN SYMPTOMS OF ANXIETY		EMPLOYEES WITH DECREASED SYMPTOMS OF ANXIETY
More	Perceived Job Stress	Less
Less	Job Satisfaction	More
More	Amount of Health Problems	Less
More	Increase in Health Problems	Less

Employees who reported that they were experiencing less anxiety than three years previously indicated that their jobs and the company they worked for were less stressful; they also achieved more satisfaction from their work and had fewer health problems. The reverse was true for managers who reported increased symptoms of anxiety. They perceived both their jobs and their companies as more stressful and they evidenced an increase in health problems. They were able to identify many specific stressors, both subtle and overt. The data suggests a relationship between occupational stressors, context, level of anxiety, and other health problems.

Off the job stressors may exert just as strong a set of influences as on the job factors. The data suggest that if a stressor or specific trigger can be reduced, if vulnerability can be reduced, and/or if the factors that comprise the context can be improved, no symptoms would occur. A major point is that there are various way to help an individual cope with stressors on the job. These range from changing the political and economic climate of the country or community to specific programs within the work organization, i.e., occupational health and counseling programs.

Four broad categories of aid illustrate the varying levels and quality of activity in support of occupational mental health:

1. policy considerations: Broad policy considerations are illustrated by examples relating to the social concern of work organizations.
2. legislation: There is an international trend toward regarding the private corporation, in part, as a public trust, and requiring certain public and employee participation in policy making decisions.
3. education and training: An international conference recently called for much greater flexibility and imagination in educational systems to prepare young adults for life careers. The ideal model suggested was a broad, basic education, with work organizations assuming a responsibility for specific career applications.
4. programs of individual support: Many specific programs have been designed to provide clinical support to produce more successful coping with occupational stressors.

McQuade, W. Doing something about stress. Fortune, 87(5), May 1973, 250-258.

This article examines many of the popular methods used to reduce stress, blood pressure level, migraine attacks, etc. Some stress-reducing methods include: encounter groups, transcendental meditation, bio-feedback, hypnosis, strenuous exercise, and religion.

The author discusses in detail how each method came into use, average costs, ease of use, results of various methods, and popularity. The first methods examined are the encounter group and sensitivity group. This type of activity is not supported by doctors because it "turned classical psychiatry inside out". The National Training Laboratories gave encounter groups exposure in industry. These encounter groups help people to resolve their relationships. They are most popular among the middle class, often encouraging them to accomplish their goals.

Another popular stress-reducing technique is transcendental meditation. Founded by Maharishi Mahesh Yogi in 1965, TM claims to diminish human stress through two twenty-minute sessions a day. Medical researchers have found that these participating in TM have reduced oxygen consumption and lactate in the blood stream.

Bio-feedback is the "most promising and technically intricate system being used in the stress field". Through this training individuals are able to control their autonomic nervous system. Bio-feedback allows control of heartbeat rhythm, arterial dilation (to relieve migraines), and relaxation of muscles (to allow for sleep and to relieve anxiety). It has been found that the brain has frequency signals that vary with the activity in the brain. The highest frequency signal, beta, is used in high pressure situations. Alpha is used in contemplative or relaxed moods. Theta is used in creative thinking, and delta used with sleep. Individuals are trained to obtain a total alpha wave by recalling pleasant experiences.

Hypnosis is currently accepted in the medical and science fields as an effective way of reducing stress. Presently it is used in dentistry, surgery, childbirth, and in curing asthmatics, among other applications.

The conventional family doctor still recommends diets, exercise, and medications to relieve stressful conditions. Psychiatry is useful for many individuals but primarily as a method in understanding of human emotions rather than as a treatment.

Resort spas and reducing spas have been established for stressed-out executives. The resorts offer medical care from the traditional to the newly-developed as well as cosmetic and athletic instruction. At these resorts individuals are pampered and given much attention. Due to the peaceful environment many leave the resort relieved of their stress.

The last alternative offered for the elimination of stress is religion. Many of the rituals in various faiths offer the participant a calming, spiritual time which can produce an inner strength that wards off stressful disorders.

McQuade, J. Temperament and stress. The Canadian Banker and ICB Review, April 1979, 86(2), 48-53.

One of the main causes of stress and distress in the business world is placing people in jobs for which they are temperamentally unsuited. Temperament is seen as inherited and developed during the first five years of life without major change occurring after that. Stress develops for an individual who is placed in an ill-suited job and who then tries to change himself to meet the job requirements.

The more an individual must change to do his job, the more stressful his work becomes. Leaders are both born and made. An individual must have both the inherent temperament and possess the necessary skills through training to succeed in management. Regardless of the amount of training and experience, the individual with the temperament for leadership will be a much more effective leader. An introverted, relaxed, and compliant person needs to be placed in a noncompetitive environment to avoid stress. In contrast, the highly competitive person needs to avoid this calm environment to avoid stress.

Working people may be categorized by four types of temperament: 1) the specialist, who is uncompetitive, introverted, relaxed, and compliant, makes an ineffective leader, and who works best in a creative specialized field such as law or carpentry; 2) the generalist, who is competitive, socially-skilled, restless, and independent-minded, makes a successful leader and works best in a varied, expanding job environment; 3) the nice guy, who is sociable, outgoing, and friendly, similiar to the specialist, and who makes an ineffective leader, gets along well with people, and works best as a liaison person, teacher, or minister; and 4) the autocrat, who is highly competitive, decisive, and ambitious, makes an insensitive and abrasive leader, and who works best with in a very structured environment and/or by himself.

Women tend to show the same types of temperament. Contrary to some attitudes, they are not more specialized and compliant than men. Promotion should be based on temperament, with all aspects of the individual and job evaluated beforehand.

Melhuish, A. & Cooper C. The stresses that make managers ill. International Management, April 1980, 51-52.

Many factors in a senior executive's life place the executive at risk of becoming physically or mentally ill. According to data collected in the first three years of a ten-year study on stress and its relation to the lives and careers of senior executives, the individual most susceptible to stress is between 35 and 40, ambitious, dedicated, in a highly competitive organization, frequently under pressure, and involved in a work/home life conflict. A long-term study of stress is necessary to determine which changes in life patterns precipitate illnesses so that organizations can advise managers how to order their lives to avoid the illnesses.

Data in this study is being gathered through questionnaires, medical exams, and spouses. To assess the work environment of these managers, they were asked to rate varied facets of their work as either pressure or satisfaction; for this study, it is hypothesized that harmful stress may occur when pressures exceed satisfactions. According to the data already gathered, work and family are reported to be the most common causes of stress, with 34% of the work stress attributed to supervisor relationships. Further, it is indicated that a combination of factors such as poor spouse and superior relationships, anxiety over lack of promotion, and a highly competitive work environment can predict poor physical health and potential ill health. A profile of the personality, lifestyle, and work environment of the at-risk executive includes a dominating need to succeed, a conflict between personal and company values, a management structure dominated by competition rather than teamwork, and a heavy demand on the executive's time and skills by other people. Job insecurity is the only element of the organizational life so far found to be predictive of mental health status.

Mickel, F.B. Stress: Race to the bottom line. Management Accounting, 1981, 62, 14-20.

Stress defined from a medical standpoint consists of bodily changes produced by stimuli such as injury, nervous tension, infection, heat, cold, etc.

According to Dr. Hans Selye, the concept of stress include two components: 1) distress--which is always unpleasant; 2) eustress-which always pleasant. In both cases the body undergoes the same nonspecific response to the stressors acting upon it, but each have different results. The effects of stress include: nervous and emotional disturbances, high blood pressure, gastric and duodenal ulcers, diseases of the heart and of the blood vessels, diseases of the kidney, rheumatic and rheumatoid arthritis, inflammatory diseases of the skin and eyes, sexual problems, metabolic diseases, cancer, and diseases of resistance in general.

Early symptoms of excessive stress include sleeping problems and inability to relax, irritability, trouble concentrating, little interest in recreation, tiring quickly, taking too much work home, drinking on a regular basis and overindulgence in sedative drugs. Stress does not occur from outside sources alone; much of it has to do with what goes on within the person.

The characteristics of Type A and Type B behaviors as formulated by Drs. Meyer Friedman and Roy E. Rosenberg, are discussed in order to show a relationship between Type A behavior and a tendency to coronary disease.

Type A persons are described as aggressive, having excessive drive, ambitious, and having a sense of time urgency. Type B persons are more relaxed with opposite characteristics. Research indicates that although the Type A person is a "hard driver" he usually does not become president of his own firm because of trouble in delegating tasks and a tendency to accomplish by himself.

Another term to describe Type A behavior is workaholic. A combination of lack of creativity and a tendency to annoy and intimidate co-workers often produce major shortcomings for these persons. They are also likely to alienate and burn-out their subordinates.

It is suggested that job situations are external factors that can create stress. Among job related causes of stress, one can recognize the following: job change, responsibility, role ambiguity, and inappropriate job placement. A list of the kinds of things that mangers could do in order to alleviate problems caused by stress and to prevent stress-full situations from happening is provided. In general, the recommendations refer to increasing communications with employees, establishing effective reinforcement systems, defining goals and expectations in a clear way, maintaining a positive and supportive attitude to avoid building up anxiety among workers, and providing healthy and desirable working conditions.

On the other hand, recommendations are also made as to how the employee can help himself deal with stress: avoid rigid schedules, develop a positive attitude, identify stressful events, map out a strategy to lessen the stress when those events occur, and try not to avoid finishing a task because of fear of failure.

Finally, it is concluded that stress has a harmful effect, not only for the individual, but also for the organization, and, therefore, it is in everyone's best interest to eliminate as many sources of stress as possible.

Milbourn, Jr., G. & Francis, G.H. All about job satisfaction.
Supervisory Management, 1981, 26(8), 35-43.

Job satisfaction is the result of an individual's expectations of, and what is received from, different facets of the work situation. The closer the expectation is to what is actually received, the greater the job satisfaction. Job satisfaction also refers to a person's feelings toward specific aspects of the work environment.

Turnover, which is a serious result of job dissatisfaction, may be handled by determining those facets of the work environment that are perceived by employees as having a negative impact upon their level of satisfaction. The level of commitment to a job is a reliable predictor of job turnover.

A study was conducted to collect data on how workers feel about work itself, pay, promotional opportunities, supervision, and co-worker interaction. Type of work and feelings of competence derived from doing an effective job were among the most important characteristics to managerial, salaried, and hourly employees.

In the Department of Labor study (1974) groups were categorized by race, age, sex, occupational category, and level of education. Job satisfaction of blacks tended to be lower than that of whites, young workers were not as satisfied with their work situations as were older workers, and male workers were usually found to be more satisfied than female employees.

Research has found that job dissatisfaction consistently influences absenteeism, turnover, and other "costs" of the corporation.

Some studies have been conducted to investigate relationships between job satisfaction and life satisfaction. One study found that unhappy workers were also unhappy with life in general. In addition, job satisfaction influences life satisfaction more than life satisfaction influences job satisfaction. This relationship is especially significant when unhappy workers attach high importance to their jobs.

It is possible to have life satisfaction without having a high degree of job satisfaction, but those who have more job satisfaction seem also to have more life satisfaction. The determination of job satisfaction and life satisfaction is to some extent dependent upon the expectations of the individual and how those expectations coincide with reality.

Misshawk, M.J. Supervisory skills and employees satisfaction. Personnel Administration, 1971, 34, 29-33.

There exist three types of primary skills every supervisor performs which are essential for subordinate satisfaction with their supervisors. These skills include: technical, administrative, and human relations skills, with the order of importance varying with the organizational structure.

A study of employees' perceptions of and satisfaction with their supervisors was conducted using engineers, mechanics, and machine operators in a large manufacturing company. The data was obtained through a questionnaire used to elicit the importance of the three supervisory skills, employee perception of the importance of each skill, and employee satisfaction with the overall work environment.

An examination of the responses indicated a number of variations in employee ratings of supervisory behavior. The results indicated that supervisory skills themselves are not as important as employees' perception of these skills in their supervisors. For a given employee, what determines satisfaction with a supervisor is a function of the employees' own feelings and perceptions of the requiements for the job and the extent to which the supervisor meets those requirements. Regardless of their own skill and autonomy, performance levels of employees do not influence their feelings concerning the characteristics they look for in their supervisors. However, there does exist a relationship between the performance level of an employee and his perception of his supervisor. This is particularly true at the lower levels of skill and job autonomy, but it is not true at higher levels.

This relationship indicates that productivity in higher skill areas is a function of environmental factors other than the supervisor.

Morano, R.A. How to manage change to reduce stress. *Management Review*, *66*(11), 1977, 21-25.

Change is inevitable, and therefore organizations must learn to adapt and flex with the times. Otherwise, they will stagnate and fail. Yet change creates stress, and stress puts a tremendous strain on an organization and on the people who make up the organization.

The Kubler-Ross model identified five distinct stages that most people experience after a significant change has affected the stability of their lives. These stages include denial, anger, bargaining, depression, and acceptance. This model can be applied to changes as they occur in organizations undergoing significant alterations or innovations.

It is important to note that the magnitude of the change must be judged by the person experiencing it, not by his supervisor. Supervisors should not casually dismiss the importance of any change. Secondly, the effects of change on an employee's behavior should be monitored constantly so that the appropriate "support" is congruent with the stage the person has reached. One must treat the individual in a substantially different manner during the various states. For example, one should avoid getting invovled in an emotional and nonproductive argument when the person is in stage 2 (anger). Passivity might be the most appropriate response during this stage. The wise organization and manager will try to diagnose the effects of any change and provide whatever support is necessary until the final stage of acceptance is reached. It is important to note that individuals will remain in a particular stage for varying lengths of time, depending on their personality and experiences and the managerial support systems available.

In cases where skills have become obsolete and retraining is needed, it is best to wait until the individual has reached the final stage of the change process (acceptance); he will then be "ripe for retraining". In short, the manager's intervention must fit the stage the individual is experiencing.

Studies show that under stress people experience a narrowing of perception and an increased rigidity. People under stress are often unaware of what is happening around them, they focus virtually all their thinking on the situation producing the stress, and they tend to become immobilized. Some people have a greater tolerance for some stresses. Therefore, it is important to distinguish among people in the organization to determine who is more vulnerable to pressure and stress. By gearing the amount of stress to individual tolerance, one may obtain maximum performance and efficiency and prevent disruption. Furthermore, individuals should develop an insight into their own tolerance or threshold level of stress so that appropriate recovery periods can be allowed, thus avoiding the risk of serious impairment of mental and physical health.

Currently, people attempt to tackle stress in many self-defeating ways. Mood altering drugs have invaded every aspects of American life with as many as 200 million prescriptions written in 1970. A better approach would include a greater self-awareness of stress producing situations such as change. A greater awareness of the ability to tolerate various levels of stress, coupled with time to recover and a nutritional approach to health, tends to lead to more productive, happier lives both within and outside the organization.

Morano, R.A. Unlocking the secret of job satisfaction. *Supervisory Management*, 1979, 17-20.

The notion of fitting a person's values to the value demands of the job is becoming of paramount importance--in fact, in some cases, aptitude and experience measures are considered less important than value requirements. In much of the literature on career development and occupatoinal choice, it is suggested that a persons' core values will not change significantly after he reaches young adulthood. Core values include ingrained beliefs, ethical standards, political leanings, life style preferences, religious tenets, and the like.

There is a strong case for reasoning that different people have different values, depending upon their experiences when growing up. It seems natural to assume that different generations may have different values. This leads to important implications for the selection of employees, career guidance, motivation, quality of work life, and indeed all of organizational life as we know it today. Instead of asking what kind of work a person does best, or where his aptitude lies, perhaps it might be more important to learn what is important to him--autonomy, need for control, degree of supervision, decision-making authority, and so on. A person whose value characteristics include, say, flexible work hours, personal freedom and interpersonal relationships with customers might be just as happy being a manufacture's representative, an insurance agent, or a used car salesperson, even though he has a high aptitude for computer programming. One should avoid the trap of considering only measures of ability and experience as determinants of job performance or as a gauge of job satisfaction.

If we utilizes value profiles in hiring decisions, we have to be careful not to violate EEO laws. Perhaps the most practical use of value profiles is in coaching and career-guidance sessions between supervisors and subordinates. In addition to testing aptitude patterns and intelligence, what is needed are occupations value patterns which could support the other measures. Then in selection and career guidance a person could be matched to a job, not only in terms of aptitudes and abilitites, but in terms of values as well.

Pelligrino, J.F. Managing stress...a challenge. The Mortgage Banker, July 1979, 12-20.

Stress is a word that has a variety of uses and definitions. Engineers define it as a force of sufficient magnitude to distort or deform when applied to a system. For mortgage banking it is excessive absenteeism, processing delays, and lost production, while business executives view it as impending deadlines and low profits. Stress is one experience that is common to all.

Some of the synonyms of stress are anxiety, pressure, frustration, depression and tension. The concept of stress as viewed by Dr. Hans Selye involves two major components: distress and eustress. Distress covers the recognized negative side of stress. Eustress represents favorable life experiences that are seldom viewed as being stressful, such as winning a contest or achievement of a major goal.

Whenever the human physiological system is forced to adjust to a demand from its environment, stress will result. Stress is therefore associated with change.

Studies have shown that although life filled with intense change may certainly present trouble, people whose lives are totally free of change may suffer consequences of a similar nature. Apparently, some degree of change is essential to maintain good health. The only reasonable goal relative to stress and good health is to achieve an appropriate state of balanced living. The capacity for continuous self-regulation is what enables the individual to attain the sense of biological balance so essentail to healthy living. Whenever the delicate balance is broken, illness occurs. The human stress response is one of the major components of this internal process of balance. Stress enables the individual to achieve his or her primary biological goal: survival. This biological process is the same one that enabled our prehistoric ancestors to struggle for survival with one of two biological options: fight or flight.

Today, the biological process occurs in a different set of circumstances; it denies an appropriate biological outlet, and the accumulation of energy will harm the organism it was originally released to protect.

Stress by itself does not necessarily connote trouble. It may involve either distress or eustress; the latter part of human stress is highly positive and desirable. Even the distress side of the coin may have positive implications. Although few people like to admit that their motivational level is directly linked to anxiety, little would be accomplished without this form of distress.

Implications of stress for American business include: high absenteeism, long-term disability claims, large group insurance premiums, and poor decision-making which in turn can be attributed to poor stress management. Psychosomatic illness and many physical health problems can also be related to improper handling of emotional stress by executives. Type A behavior, which is characterized by rigidity patterns as well as difficulties in engaging in relaxed attitudes or activities, is another factor related to physical diseases elicited by stress.

Another major implication of stress on American workers is the consequence of defensive attitudes on dealing with stress. This causes inflexible, uncreative behaviors that are not the best prescriptions for success in today's business climate.

The two basic options for coping with stress are the following:

1) Seek a change in the environmental influences that trigger the stress response.

2) Attempt to alter the manner in which workers react to the numerous demands made on them by their environments.

Although the former option may be appropriate in some circumstances, the latter choice consistently proves to be the most reliable. By assuming responsibility for one's own feelings, attitudes and behavior, the individual soon attains a sense of his or her own personal power.

Since stress by itself is such a complex, multifaceted process, it requires an equally diverse paln of attack if it is to be effectively managed. A balanced program of stress management should involve recreation, reorientation and relaxation (the three R's of effective living). Through a concerted effort in all three areas, one's ability to cope with stress increases considerably.

Overbake, J.E. Pressures build on today's manager. Industry Week, Dec. 15, 1975, 187 21-24.

In the current recession many workers have been laid off or fired as a result of the slowdown in the economy. These events have caused stress for both the employee and the manager. This article deals with the increasing stress managers are subject to bcause of layoffs. Much of the stress is attributed to the belief that today's managers are more humanistic than their predecessors. Because managers care about their employees they are under greater strain when it is necessary for them to fire or lay-off an employee.

Managers react to the stress with various coping mechanisms. Some have suffered nervous breakdowns from the sense of unfairness and lack of justice toward employees. Others have had near-fatal heart attacks. Still others have trouble psychologically justifying the actions they are required to take against employees. In cases where there are younger managers in stressful conditions the rate of heart attack among them has risen. A portion of the stress a manager is subjected to can be reduced if he has the input of fellow mangers or if a relocation counseling program is available to the employees. A few options were offered for helping managers to cope. They ran the gamut from non-involvement to total involvement. A stock answer is: "If a man cannot handle letting people go, he probably shouldn't be a manager." Another is "I have to make the decision that's in the best interests of everyone." One manager comments, "Of course you worry about the people, but if I were going to be a basket case I would have been one a long time ago." A corporate vice-president stated, "If he [the manager] just walks in and says to hell with it and fires a man, he's too cold for us." A psychologist states, "A manager must realize that conflict is an inevitable part of a management job and must view it as an opportunity for growth rather than as a roadblock to happiness." A physician believes that "the whole system might benefit if more managers suffered from stress during the firing or lay-off process." He continues: "Why shouldn't a personnel manager be stressed? I think he deserves it."

The article concludes by stating that the manager must adopt a system of personal ethics. He must also accept and understand his feelings or guilt and stress in order to develop a basic integrity and a stable self-concept regarding his work environment.

Odiorne, G.S. Executives under siege: Strategies for survival. Management Review, 1978, 7-12.

Top executives face intense and unique stresses. Major product failures, legal scandals, corporate mismanagement and other traumas contribute to a decline in public regard for business and a lowering of organizational morale. More so than other organizational positions, the top executive is subject to being hauled before a legislative committee, bribery charges, possible kidnapping, picketing, and being shouted at by corporate stockholders.

To gain some insight into the particular stresses of high executives, 61 executives who had been directly traumatized by real events were interviewed. Strategies used to avoid stressful situations were also sought. Strategies primarily fell into three categories: 1) fight the adversary, 2) run away; heart attacks, alcohol or avoidance were examples, or 3) respond professionally.

It was recommended that executives seek outside advice since it is not often easy to remain objective when dealing with issues that only concern other individuals. When the situation has a high personal impact, the reaction is often emotional and impulsive.

A system of possible personal responses to crisis includes: 1) freeze and respond later, 2) become an ostrich; refuse public or private interviews, 3) lash back fast, denying and attacking the accuser, 4) raise the issue to a higher general plane, elevating an issue because of deep-seated ideologies, 5) let your lawyer handle it, the implication being that had the lawyer done the job in the first place, the mess would not exist, 6) tough it out; if the accusers were a minority or counter-culture group, it was deemed easier simply to let the situation pass, 7) round up your gang; although the crises involved the top executive, key executives were organized for a defense, 8) make like a duck; although calm on the surface, the executive tries to soften the impact of the damaging evidence, 9) contain the damage; when a crisis arises, write off the damage, and set up a line of final resistance, 10) act like Mayor Daley; fire the department head as a sacrificial lamb, 11) attack the other's motives, 12) countersue, 13) pick your best option; objective options should be sought, or 14) win on a higher level.

Prevention will prepare the executive for a crisis. The pattern should include: 1) Manage by anticipation. Consider in advance all plausible crises and resonse tactics; 2) Make better use of environmental audits. Survey risks regularly, particularly if in a high risk environment; 3) Keep physically fit. Exhaution and ill health may invite dangerous responses; 4) Develop personal skills. Training to use the media effectively and advantageously is important; and 5) Plan things ahead all the time.

Oldham, M. & Wild, R. Job and role dissonance and withdrawal from work among women workers. Personnel Review, 1979, 8(1), 24-30.

Traditional reasons given for women workers' absences from work and labor turnover are: marriage, pregnancy, family removal from the district, illness, and even individual attitudes.

When the dissonance model is used to examine the relationship between life and work the key factors considered are: individual perception of the work situation; perception of alternatives available to the individual; and necessary action required. Dissonace is considered to be a "negative drive state which arises when an individual holds, simultaneously, cognitions which are psychologically inconsistent, and to which she attaches some importance." According to the model, dissonance occurs because of incompatibility between work and nonwork roles or a perception that job expectations have not been achieved. Dissatisfaction and frustration occur in work situations when actual perceptions do not match unrealistic expectations established beforehand.

Three suggestions are made for the reduction of dissonance. First, expectations, beliefs, and attitudes change as a result of experience to accord more closely with reality. Second, dissonance may be reduced by withdrawing from work, leaving, or being absent. Third, increasing the quality of work and the value of it to the individual reduced the likelihood of dissonance. The model is based on a theory of dissonance and the belief that both individual desire and opportunity affect the decision to withdraw.

A study was conducted of 109 employees form twelve companies located in four different regions. The study attempted to indicate how attitudes influence job withdrawal. High job dissonace was found to be more prevalent than high role dissonance. Both high role and high job dissonance are independent to termination while high role dissonance is independent to absence. Role dissonace is a "reflection of individual preference and perceptions." The survey suggests that high job dissonance is easier to tolerate than high role dissonance and does not have to result in withdrawal from work.

Nideffer, R. Can you cope with stress? Dun's Business Monthly, November 1975, 106, 89-90.

Stress may be the executive's single most powerful and pervasive enemy, playing a role in a wide variety of maladies from backpain to heart attacks. Because stress causes certain body functions such as pulse rate and muscle tension to increase, Dr. Robert Nideffer of the University of Rochester has developed a program to help executives adjust stress levels.

In a lab the executive is wired for biofeedback and vital signs are noted while the person is relaxed. During each of the following ten sessions the executive thinks about situations he considers stressful and Dr. Nideffer trains him on how to control his reactions. After training, the executive can expect to be less anxious than 86% of the population in the same situation.

The level of stress varies from company to company. At some it is so muted that it is barely audible while at others it reaches such a crescendo that it drives away all but the most determined. Some companies are more stressful than others due to the nature of the business itself or the personality of the chief executive. Advertising agencies are more stressful than manufacturing companies because advertising jobs are dependent on the whims of the client. If a chief executive is tyrannical he causes fear in subordinates; if he is weak there may be factional wars among the executives.

Included in the study was a list of companies having high levels of stress. The high stress level does not necessarily indicate an undesirable work place. The companies are: Revlon, I.T.T., Chrysler Corp., Singer Co., E & J Gallo Winery, Wachoria Corp., Procter and Gamble, Johnson & Johnson, Crane Co., and W.R. Grace & Co.. Revlon is the most stress-ridden company because of the nature of the industry and its demanding founder. I.T.T. is stressful due to a rumor of 100 dismissals waiting to be implemented. Chrysler Corp. and Singer are both stressful due to enormous company losses. The Gallo Winery is run by a demanding chief executive who quickly fires those that "do not measure up" but offers those that survive "great opportunity for creativity, profit, commitment, and travel." The last companies listed, Wachovia Corp., Procter & Gamble, Johnson & Johnson, Crane., and W.R. Grace all place excessive demands on their executives, often to the point of being unreasonable. This causes great stress for the executive who must deliver or be replaced. As one recruiter said of a corporate chairman, "He always insists on miracles. Sometimes he gets them."

Niehouse, O.L. The road to burnout in the public sector, Supervisory Management, 1983, 28(3), 22-28.

Burnout in the helping professions is caused by the intensity of the interpersonal relationship that evolves between the helping professionals and the people they are trying to help. Public service employees are particularly vulnerable to burnout because of the nature of their positions. The helping professional works with people at a level that becomes intense because of his or her caring and because of the pressing needs of those who seek help.

Public sector positions usually have three stressors-role ambiguity, the paradox of power and powerlessness, and politics. Government plays a large part in this because of its complexity which breeds confusion. In a broad sense, role ambiguity means that functions and responsibility can overlap in an agency creating an atmosphere of "What can I do?" or "Who's in charge?" The paradox of power and powerlessness deals more with immediate supervision, i.e., who's in charge, who has the final decision. Power and powerlessness can co-exist in government positions. Under these conditions, an atmosphere of frustration exists which can lead to burnout. Politics is defined as "the use of intrigue or strategy in obtaining any power or control." Most government agencies and their public sector managers are vulnerable to pressures from a host of outside participants which add to the built-in stressors of politics. Often administrators are under time pressures to complete jobs or loose theirs. Nowhere is the stress of political pressures more evident than in the areas affected by attempts to comply with a shift in public attitudes toward ths costs and size of government.

For many years public workers believed that their wages were low, their benefits high and their jobs guaranteed. Unfortunately, that's not the way it is anymore. This belief, the shock of loss of job security in what was once a more or less guaranteed-for-life position, has created frustratoin, anger, disappointment, resentment, and a climate where low morale is pervasive.

Because of its nature, government contains factors that can be identified as stressors. Employment in the public sector for those affected by any reductions are not promising. Many employees express betrayal and resentment because they had pursued a government career partly because of the implicit security of the job. Cutbacks in funding and personnel have hampered their ability to provide the services they are there to give. These feelings have affected moitvation and productivity. The climate in the public sector has become ideal for increased incidences of burnout.

Orpen, C. Social desirability as a moderator of the relationship between job satisfaction and personal adjustment. Personnel Psychology, 1974, 27, 103-108.

Current research concerning the relationship between job satisfaction and personal adjustment has been criticized because it could be assumed that it is socially desirable for employees to register responses indicating high levels of job satisfaction and of personal adjustment. The author hypothesized that the positive correlation between the two factors would be reduced when the influence of social desirability was statistically removed.

Two measures each of job satisfaction, social desirability, and personal adjustment were administered to 50 males and 41 females, all white employees of a medium-sized manufacturing company. Job satisfaction was measured by (a) the 18-item Brayfield-Rothe index of job satisfaction and (b) a 7-point self-rating scale of overall job satisfaction. Social desirability was measured by (a) the Crowne-Marlowe social desirability scale and (b) the combined judgement of three workpeers. Personal adjustment was measured by (a) the sum of the alienation, social nonconformity and discomfort subscales of the Psychological Screening Inventory and (b) the self-rating version of the Personality Integration Reputation Test.

Correlations between the two measures of each variable were calculated and found to be significant.

Results indicated positive correlations between job satisfaction and social desirability, and between personal adjustment and social desirability. Using the Crowne-Marlowe scores, the inflating effect of social desirability was removed, and the resulting job satisfaction-adjustment correlation was lowered. Scatter diagrams indicated that a number of employees appeared to be well-adjusted, but were not particularly satisfied with their jobs. Thus, the study appeared to support the author's major hypothesis.

Moss, L. Management stress. Reading, Massachusetts: Addison-Wesely, 1981.

Stress includes the ordinary pressures of day-to-day living, as well as the extraordinary pressures that confront each of us from time to time. A management stressor is defined as: any objective condition or any change in the work environment that is perceived as potentially harmful, threatening, challenging or frustrating; or any set of circumstances related to work that requires change in the individual's on-going life pattern.

The modern concept of stress links stressors and the reactions that follow in a dynamic sequence of conditions: the impact of environmental stress from all sources (stressors) poses a threat to the individual; mediating factors such as social support systems (context) influence the individual's perception of stressors and so serve to modify their impact; the individual's adaptive coping capacity and other characteristics (vulnerability) influence how the individual deals with the perceived threat; stress responses (strain, stress reactions) that accompany the coping process are experienced as distressing and may trigger illness; the consequences of this process (confidence, sense of mastery, illness, maladjustment) become evident over time. Stressors are thus linked to their consequences. Different stressors require different actions to cope with these consequences.

The syndrome of burnout is used more and more frequently these days to describe the adverse effects of working conditions where pressures are unavoidable and sources of satisfaction are unavailable. Symptoms of individual burout are outlined as follows:

1. Early stages
    1. Work performance

       --efficiency declines, initiative dampens, interest in work diminishes, and a person is progressively less able to maintain work performance in times of stress.

    2. Physical condition

       --feels exhausted, fatigued, physically run-down, headaches, gastrointestinal disturbances, weight loss, sleeplessness, shortness of breath.

    3. Behavioral symptoms

       --changing or dampened moods, quickness to anger and increasing irritability, diminished frustration tolerance, suspiciousness, feelings of helplessness, increased levels of risk taking.

2. Later stages
    1. Attempts at self-medication.
    2. Increasing rigidity.
    3. Abilities of self, co-workers and organization are questioned.
    4. Time spend working decreases, productivity declines dramatically.

Many techniques have been proposed to cope with the stressfulness of the work environment. Techniques within the control of the individual include: maintaining personal fitness; increasing respect for leisure time; reducing workload; not taking on too much work or behaving as if one had an unlimited capacity to cope with stressful conditions; cognitive coping--an analysis of stress-producing situations to decide what is worth worrying about and what is not; delegating workload--not carrying the entire load alone; and establishing daily goals and setting priorities to accomplish the most important objectives. These individual methods must be supplemented by management. In times of stress, social interactions within an organization can set in motion a destructive process that adversely affects individuals who, under normal conditions, would not be so affected. The outcome of this destructive process on the group level is referred to as the "organizational burnout" syndrome. Indications of organizational burnout are lowered morale and dissatisfaction expressed through group interaction such as: high personnel turnover; increasing absenteeism; frequent scapegoating; antagonism within pairs and groups of individuals working together; dependent individuals who manifest their dependence through anger at superiors and expressions of helplessness and hopelessness; maintenance of critical attitudes toward co-workers; lack of cooperation among personnel; progressive lack of initiative; increasing expression of job dissatisfaction and expressions of negativism concerning the role or function of the unit.

In general, burnout has occurred in untis where: there are excessive performance demands on personnel, there is a heightened sense of personal responsibility or involvement, the nature of the unit frequently precludes a successful outcome, work priorities have low yield in terms of personal satisfaction, there are ambiguous lines of authority, and members are assigned responsibility for decision-making without having appropriate authority.

Coping strategies to manage organizational burout focus on improving social forces at work through planned group interaction while at the same time improving sources of personal satisfaction and support external to the work environment. The following steps are recommended to manage organizational burnout: meetings with administrative personnel to define the nature of the problem as organizational rather than as unique to the individuals involved; a series of carefully planned unit meetings to ventilate distress; reorganization of work priorities and staff interactions; focusing on allocation of authority and responsibility (distributing frustrating tasks, or utilizing the team approach); encouraging group discussion of the social effects of burnout such as elimination of outside interests, development of physical symptoms, and disruption of family functioning; and a clear-cut message that encourages referral for private, confidential counseling for individuals interested in discussing personal issues.

Stressors from outside the organization shape the managers' work and roles and influence the interaction between career and personal life. Among the sources of external stress are: a rapidly changing business life; new social values and political developments that affect established organizational practicds; and shifting personal and family values that affect the context in which career-related personal crises arise.

Mutter, J. Stress: A guide to getting loose. Sales and Marketing Management, 1979, 122(8), 70-74.

In dealing with stress, the forms of treatment used are as varied as the causes of stress. Some methods to cure stress don't work and some even make the problem worse. This article presents a survey of the methods Americans use to cure or at least reduce the amount of stress in their lives. The methods discussed are the following.

Alcohol - Alcoholism is one of the biggest health problems in the U.S. Ten million people suffer from overdependence on alcohol for relief from stress. Alcohol is physiologically potent because it acts as a depressant on the central nervous system which controls respiration, the heart and other vital functions. Some of the effects of overindependence on alcohol include reduced appetite, loss of muscle tone, the heart is weakened, the liver's capacity for cleansing the blood is severely limited, memory and motor coordination is impaired, and brain cells may be damaged. Recognition of alcoholism as an illness has changed doctor's attitudes, and even organizations' attitudes toward the alcoholic, which in turn has helped society to deal with the problem in a more positive way.

Tranquilizers - Stress produced effects such as insomnia and hypertension which many people try to avoid by using tranquilizers. The use of tranquilizers is very detrimental when applied as the only form of treatment to stress because it only deals with the effects and not the factors that cause stress.

Stress Testing - Testing for stress is becoming popular and consists of a procedure where the person being tested walks on a treadmill for about 15 minutes while a cardiologist monitors electrocardiograph electrodes attached to his or her chest. Doctors have recognized this method as an effective way of detecting cardiac problems in people whose heart has so deteriorated that they could die of a heart attack at any time. For executives over 35, especially those who are overweight and sedentary, testing for stress is recommended once a year.

Exercise - Exercise is recognized as an effective way of counteracting stress, especially because it results in more stamina and discipline. Exercise loosens the body and dissipates tension. Physically active people generally eat better, sleep better and are better able to deal with daily pressures than people who don't exercise. Physical fitness activities have become part of many companies' health program and stress reducing strategies.

Biofeedback Training - Biofeedback training is aimed at controlling physiological changes produced by stress such as an abnormally fast heart beat and rising of skin temperature. The individual is taught to use devices that monitor body impulses and temperature. This technique enables the person to learn to control the body's reactions.

Yoga - Yoga is considered as one of the oriental techniques that involve the control of the body and mind with relaxing results. Basic yoga consists of stretching and breathing exercises that limber up the nervous and circulatory systems. Medical researchers have found that people can control physiological functions such as heart rate and skin temperature and that practicing yoga faithfully can add 10 to 20 years to a person's life.

EST - EST is another stress-reducing approach known as a mind exploration program founded in 1971 by Werner Edward. This program consists of a series of Seminar Training sessions during which participants aren't supposed to talk about particulars, but are expected to meditate and talk with "effort being directed inward". They supposedly discover inner strengths and discard false ideas which enables them to better deal with life. The program's efficacy has been questioned and although its popularity is increasing, the method receives only grudging credit from some psychologists and psychiatrists.

Changing Jobs - This strategy of dealing with stress is based on the belief that if one's present job produces a stress level too far above or below some optimum level, the best medicine is to switch jobs.

Nelson, J.G. Burnout - business's most costly expense. Personnel Administrator, 1980, 81-87.

Burnout is one of those afflictions which hits people in self-imposed, high-intensity situations. Burned out executives used to be viewed as simply overworked and this physical problem was thought to be remedied by a relaxing weekend. These simplistic notions have been questioned. Burnout is typically found in mid-career crisis, but it can happen to different people at different times. Why does burnout usually occur during mid-career? Mid-career is a classical time in life when people begin to deal with some of the unrealistic expectations that they and others may have put on their lives. For many people, unrealistic expectations become more and more unattainable as the reality of life experiences progress.

At this point it takes a super amount of psychic energy to reassess expectations and achievements and each person has to deal with the issues involving life's dissappointments, guilt, and regret. The energy expended must come from other life functions, such as work, family nurturance, and the like.

Some suggestions, as to what personnel management can do company wide to improve the productivity of employees working under the effects of burnout, are as follows:

-Management can become tuned-in to what is happening in terms of mobility, both within and without the corporate structure.

-Management should take a close look at the system of awards in the organization, especially recognition.

-Varying the work hours to provide the opportunity that some need to meet their internal productive time clocks.

-Improve training, educational and conference programs to create employee redirection.

All of these suggestions are obtainable at relatively little cost and tend to pump the new blood of enthusiasm into the organization.

Having identified the need for management to create a climate of working conditions which raises the level of self-worth and morale, there are a number of suggestions given for the individual employee to ward off burnout:

1) Learn to talk about those issues that bother you. Expressing fear, frustration, and disappointment can discharge negative feelings and build toward more positive ones.
2) Learn to be reflective. Weigh opinions before being impulsive. Don't however, become reflective at the expense of assertiveness.
3) Spend some time getting into real issues about being a person and an employee.
4) Don't accept your condition. Understand it. Change is important for dealing with the pressure of self-conceived and high-intensity jobs.
5) Learn to create a positive attitude.
6) Learn to be assertive.
7) Learn to accept limitations.
8) Take time to exercise. Run, swim, bicycle, or sail; whatever gives you relaxation and enjoyment should be placed in your schedule.

9) Don't be afraid of changing locations. If burnout is imminent, don't be afraid to consider a change in your place of employment.

10) Learn the technique of living in the now. Many times employees learn, too late, that the grass may not be greener on the other side.

11) Learn the techniques of getting positive psychological strokes.

12) Use wages earned on something for yourself.

13) Expect to improve. When the unfinished business is finally resolved and out to rest, new goals and directions are clearly set.

14) Develop a support system building to retirement.

Understanding burnout does not solve all personnel problems but it does encompass many issues that personnel managers deal with, both corporately and personally.

Perham, J.C. The uptight executive. Dun's, 1972, 99, 79-80.

Executives handle stress better than other people, a quality that helps them rise to the top. There is actually more stress on middle managers than on top executives; this is because of pressure both above and below them.

Tension affects people in different ways, however, most people are less happy under stress. Stress is beneficial up to a point; that point is passed when tension interferes with functioning or if it has an adverse effect on home life.

There are differing approaches on how to handle stress. Suggestions from doctors on how to handle stress include exercising regularly, taking up an absorbing hobby, talking things over with a friend, and taking tranquilizers. There are differing points of view on the merits and/or harm of taking tranquilizers. Some doctors feel that tranquilizers are drugs and are harder to kick than heroin. Others feel they can do more good than harm if carefully used for a limited period of time (such as one month). This latter group believes that when a person is slowed down, by tranquilizers they will learn how pleasant life can be and eventually function without pills.

Some practical suggestions to relieve stress include: 1) associating with people outside one's field, 2) take time out for oneself and one's family, 3) not drinking at lunch, 4) preventing stress before it occurs, possibly by changing one's own habits, 5) doing outside activities with quick payoffs, and 6) if all else fails, finding another job with less stress.

Pepitone, A.R., Sommer, B., Sassenrath, E.N., Rozer-Koker, P., & Stringer-Moore, D. Job stress and health in working women. Journal of Human Stress, 1981, 7(4), 19-26.

As women enter competitive areas of employment such as management the effect of stress on their health and job performance will be of increasing importance. Some studies indicate that the prolonged effect of stress is indeed negative. The negative impact of stress results in deficits in sexual and reproductive functions which appear to be mediated through central controls of endocrine rhythms or responses. In women, tension is believed to have an impact on the menstrual cycle causing a higher frequency of irregularity, missed periods, discomfort, etc.

The study here examined women who had experienced high levels of subjective and objective stress. The major hypothesis suggested that high levels of stress results in higher levels of menstrual dysfunction. Participants of the study (172 female university employees) were from both high and low salary levels. Job stress was studied with respect to salary and self-report. Menstrual dysfunction was analyzed based on six indicators: excessive bleeding, prolonged bleeding, bleeding between periods, missed periods, increased irregularity, and increased discomfort. The time frame adapted for the survey of menstrual dysfunction was two years. Other variables studied included symptoms related to perceived stress and recent life changes.

The results of this study indicate that women who are functioning in positions of higher responsibility and higher perceived (subjective) job stress do not experience greater frequency of menstrual dysfunction than women in positions of less responsibility and lower perceived job-related stress. Women tend to report most frequently headache and muscle pain which are characteristically considered as signals of high stress. Other symptoms of chronic stress such as ulcers and high blood pressure are not often reported by women. The study supports the view that women are able to cope with job-related stress in a positive manner, although they are not always able to cope with stress in their private life. The response to stress is also viewed as an individual reaction which is based on the source or type of stress, the individual, and the ability to respond to stress.

Pelligrino, J.F. Stress: How to manage it. The Mortgage Banker,
August, 1979, 7-12.

A persons' attitudes, beliefs, and self-concept play a large role in how an individual will cope with a stressful situation. Hence, what is stressful to one person may not be so to another. Many psychologists adhere to the belief that a person's emotional state is a result of the thought processes involved. A situation becomes stressful when one's system of beliefs are challenged by events of a conflicting nature. When this type of situation occurs, it may be necessary for that individual to reorient his or her attitudes and beliefs that are negative and self-defeating. There are strategies that can be employed in order to assist those persons having difficulty with their management of stress so that they feel that they are solely in command of their feelings and that they, and not others, can determine success or failure.

It is necessary to set goals. These goals should be both long and short term and most importantly, they should be realistic. The ability to communicate one's thoughts clearly can effectively diminish a stressful situation. Therefore, it is imperative to learn how to be assertive. It is also important to eliminate self-defeating attitudes and concentrate on improving self-concept.

Stress accompanies negative attitudes. Reorienation of self-defeating beliefs and attitudes can be accomplished by having some type of diversion such as learning how to relax or by having a form of recreational outlet in order to minimize stress. Stress management can greatly affect the well-being of an individual and can result in a happier, more productive life.

Peters, R.K. & Benson, H. Time out from tension. Harvard Business Review, Jan/Feb 1978, 56(1), 120-124.

The rapid technological progress in modern society has caused some changes increasing the pace and pressures of life. The business community has played an integral part in this change and has had to adjust behaviorally to the effects of a pressured lifestyle. These behavioral adjustments are emotionally and physiologically stressful and lead to undesirable effects on health and well being. Elevated blood pressure, excessive mental irritability and anxiety are common manifestations of stress. There has been an increasing awareness of the harmful effects of stress but few individuals know how to alleviate them.

The "relaxation response", (which is an innate physiologic reaction characterized by decreases in metabolic rate, heartbeats, and breathing rate), is a simple way to deal with stress and thus to prevent or control its damaging effects. The relaxation response can be elicited by a number of simple techniques such as religious meditation and prayer. There are four elements common to all of these techniques: 1) a relatively quiet environment, 2) a comfortable position, 3) a repetitive mental stimulus, and 4) a passive attitude.

A recent study tested the feasibility and usefulness of voluntary relaxation response breaks in the working environment. It investigated whether relaxation response breaks taken within the occupational setting can alleviate the undesirable manifestations of stress. The study was conducted with 194 employees of Aetna Corporation of whom 54% were female and 46% male with similiar demographic and personal characteristics.

The subjects were divided into four groups. Group A was taught the technique of eliciting the relaxation reponse. Group B was instructed simply to sit quietly and relax. Group C received no instructions concerning relaxation and was told to follow its usual schedule. Group D also received no instructions, was asked to go about its customary work, and attended only two measurement sessions.

The investigation was designed to measure variations in blood pressure, the employees own perception of their general health, overall performance and well being. General health was measured by a symptoms index. Performance was assessed by a performance index composed of the subjects' daily rating of their own physical energy, strength of concentration, ability to handle problems, and their overall efficiency. The sense of well being was evaluated through two questionnaires. A sociability satisfaction questionnaire and a happiness-unhappiness questionnaire were both administered bi-weekly. The results showed that significant decreases in blood pressure occurred only in Group A. Virtually no changes in blood pressure occurred in Groups C or D.

The same pattern of changes was noted in the indexes of general health, performance, and sense of well being. The greatest average improvement in each of the indices occurred in Group A. The results of this investigation indicate that relaxation response breaks not only are feasible in the work world but also are associated with improvements in general health, performance, general well being and lowering of blood pressure. Relaxation response breaks appear to alleviate stress-related problems. Both industries and individuals should benefit from incorporating this relatively inexpensive and safe "health habit" into the work environment.

Poe, S.G. & Scherr, F.C. Job burnout: How to avoid it in credit management. Credit and Financial Management, May 1981, 16-19.

These authors define burnout as "the emotional and physical exhaustion resulting from chronic and severe stress on the job, which is often complicated by uncomfortable physical and emotional symptoms ranging from exhaustion and insomnia to headaches and stomach disorders." Individuals vary in their abilities to handle stress and jobs vary in their burnout potential. One of the major causes of burnout is the new employee's own attitudes and high expectations toward his job which within a year are altered by disillusionment. One's own resources then either help or hinder adjustment.

There are three stages of burnout delineated. The first is termed "negative distancing" which results in the employee separating himself physically and/or psychologically from the job. Some physical symptoms begin at this stage, often a feeling of uncomfortableness which is not well defined. The second stage is an escape stage demonstrated by the avoidance of clients and colleagues, absenteeism and an aversion to doing anything that "is not my job." the third stage contains further escapism and negative distancing which may lead to various kinds of substance abuse and increased illness. Eventually the employee probably quits or is fired. If he continues to work, there will be a great loss to the agency as a result of reduced productivity. The low self-esteem, depression and hostility the employee experiences will affect not only clients and colleagues, but also his family.

There are some suggestions to avoid burnout presented:

1. Selective hiring-check potential stress history as well as implementing of probation periods.

2. Once hired, provide adequate and realistic training for the new worker.
3. Establish and maintain understandable, consistent and attainable goals for employees.
4. Make sure the firm has an effective, two-way system of communication between managers and subordinates.
5. Avoid assigning constant work overloads.
6. Support subordinates, formally and informally.
7. Incorporate credit decision-making models in the firm's procedures whereever possible.

Executives themselves can reduce their own burnout potential by: 1) examining personal responses to stress; 2) maintaining a balance between work time and personal time; and 3) discussing the pressures of the job with colleagues in a positive, problem-solving atmosphere.

Potter, E.H. & Fiedler, F.E. The utilization of staff member intelligence and experience under high and low stress. *Academy of Management Journal*, 1981, *24*(2), 361-376.

Staff members exist to assist, advise and represent the superior. They collect, analyze and evaluate information, prepare reports and perform routine administrative support functions for the line managers. A stressful relationship with a superior is likely to have a major impact on one's ability to function.

Stress and anxiety usually narrow one's ability to think along new lines, thus inhibiting creativity. However, stress tends to improve performance on overlearned tasks. According to this study, the less experienced employees were more effected by stress than were the employees who had been with the U.S. Coast Guard longer. Experience enables the employee to fall back on previously learned behavior. Job stress actually seemed to have little effect on using intelligence. Job stress was considerably less important than is boss stress in determining the use of intelligence and experience.

There is a consistently negative relationship between intelligence and performance under high stress with a superior. This stressful relationship has a marked effect on the subordinates' functioning. However, supervisors tend to not be aware of how they are perceived by subordinates.

It is a misuse of a person's talent and a disservice to the person to assign them to superiors who place them under stress. It would be wiser to place people with rare intellectual abilities in line positions where their talents will not go to waste and they are not in highly routine positions.

Porter, L.W., & Steers, R.M. Organizational, work, and personal factors in employee turnover and absenteeism. Psychological Bulletin, 1973, 80, 151-176.

Employee turnover and absenteeism have potentially critical consequences for both the person and the organization. There seems to be no consistent relationship between turnover and scores on tests for intelligence, aptitude and personality. The variabels of high pay and unfriendly work colleagues do not have a uniform impact on withdrawal decisions. However, when an individual's expectations aren't met, the likelihood of withdrawing increases. Employees who remain with a company generally feel their expectations at the time of hire were being met as compared to those employees who left and felt their expectations weren't being met. Pay and promotion are not the same thing; promotion usually is accompanied by salary increase but the reverse is not necessarily true. The perceived fairness of pay and promotion affects absenteeism more than their amount and rapidity. Organization size is also highly related to absenteeism but weakly related to turnover. Turnover rates appear to be fairly constant among organizations of varying sizes. Employees are attracted to either large or small organizations for different reasons.

Turnover rates were highest for workers whose foremen rated low in consideration; turnover was also considerably higher among employees whose supervisors had less than five years of managerial experience. In the majority of the studies turnover was greater in large units than in small ones. The lowest absence rates were found to occur in middle-sized groups.

Four job content factors are: Overall reaction to job content (how close expectations and realities of the job are), task repetitiveness (absenteeism was somewhat higher on more repetitive jobs), job autonomy and responsibility, and role clarity (the things which lead to role ambiguity are rapid organizational change, organizational complexity, and managerial philosophies concerning communications).

Personal factors which influence turnover and absenteeism include age (strong negative relationship between increased age and frequency and duration of turnover); tenure with the organization (length of service on a previous job is an accurate predictor of the likelihood to remain on the present job); similarity of job with vocational interest; personality characteristics (stayers tend to be more emotionally stable, mature, sincere, with strong job identification and more moderate achievement orientations); and family size and responsibilities (females tended to leave jobs as their family size increased while males tended to stay).

Job satisfaction represents an important force in the individual's decision to participate. The decision to participate or withdraw may be looked at as a process of balancing received or potential rewards with desired expectations.

Rappaport, M., Dolan, M.P. & Clementi, T. Psychological problems in an industrial setting. Journal of Occupational Medicine, 1977, 19, 659-663.

In many large industrial organizations, the incidence of psychological problems is great among employees. Most of these agencies provide medical assistance for employees and are equipped to handle their specific problems. More often than not, these problems have a significant impact on the individual's personal life, including his performance at work. In such cases, it is necessary that appropriate health services be provided within the industry and within the general local health service community.

Presently available literature was investigated in an effort to find out more specifically the type of psychological problems individuals presented in an industrial setting. Unfortunately, however, little actual data was reported. Subsequently, a study was conducted to focus on the primary presenting psychological problems of individuals in industrial settings.

The sample consisted of 221 individuals. All were analyzed in terms of primary presenting psychological problems, degree of psychological dysfunction, degree to which physical problems contribute to or are associated with primary presenting psychological problems, degree to which primary presenting psychological problems are associated with psychophysiological disorders, and the types of medical services provided by the psychiatrist at the initial psychological screening interview.

Results of the study indicated a wide variety of intrapersonal and interpersonal psychiatric problems among individuals seeking psychiatric assistance. In the intrapersonal category, worries, tensions, fears, anxiety, unhappiness and depression are most often noted. In the interpersonal problem category, marital and occupational problems are more often recorded.

In the course of this study, it was discovered that individuals with depression proceeding from within were undergoing prolonged psychological counseling that did not have much affect on their disorder. These individuals were again evaluated and given adequate medical treatment, after which many recovered, requiring little if any further psychological counseling. This finding emphasizes the importance of an initial screening by a medical psychiatrist before counseling is initiated. The best type of mental health care calls for an approach of this kind.

Further research detailing specific job related problems needs to be conducted. Data on the aforementioned problems is not presently available. It would be advantageous to consider these problems in a humanistic and scientific light so as to improve the well being of the worker, and improve industrial productivity and economic performance.

Reardon, R.W. Help for the troubled worker in a small company. Personnel 1976, 53, 50-54.

Many companies are now taking an active role in the personal problems of their employees. Employers have found that special programs deal economically and efficiently with the problems of lower productivity, poor performance, and turnover among employees.

The company examined in the article, The Southern Connecticut Gas Company (SCG), has less than 600 employees. Due to its small size SCG utilized the services of the United Way to conduct the program. Not only did the United Way have the facilities but it also offered confidentiality to entering employees. The Family Service agency, part of the Family Services of America Inc., offers the same facilities to other small companies. Employees of SCG were not required or expected to discuss their problems with the supervisor or personnel manager. Southern Connecticut Gas also trained 90 supervisors to recognize and remedy declining on-the-job performance. The positive results achieved included avoiadance of adversary relationships between union and management.

Employees enter the program after recommendatoin from their supervisor for a voluntary visit. The recommendation is made when disciplinary action is mandatory and professional help is advised. The employee meets a caseworker away from the job and counseling or referral begins. The company is only notified of the employee's attendance and not of the treatment or nature of the problem.

Success of the program is based on several factors, an important one being confidentiality. Employees trust the caseworker because he is not connected with the company. Another reason for success of the program is lowered costs. The majority of additional visits are paid for by health insurance coverage, major medical, or a sliding scale payment schedule through the family service agency. Proof of the success of the program lies in the large number of employees who have responded successfully to treatment and are still employed by the company.

Reeder, L.G., Schrama, P.G. & Dirken, J.M. Stress and cardiovascular health: An international study. Social Science and Medicine, 1973, 7, 573-584.

Indicators of social stress are referred to in this paper as coming from cultural change, situational change, and psychological change. Indicators of stress are social crowding, social isolation, blocking of aspirations, status inconsistency, alienation, anomie, relative deprivation, life crisis, etc.

The research evidence concludes that lower middle-class men in low status jobs are at the greatest risk from heart disease. Mobility is another cause of heart disease, and socially mobile people are also at high risk. Discontinuity from childhood to adulthood sitatuions may promote the development of heart disease. Anxiety, neuroticism, use of denial and repression as defense mechanisms precede the onset of coronary heart disease. Status discongruity is another major cause of heart disease.

The present study was initiated in 1966. Three countries participated in the study: Holland, Switzerland, and Scotland.

The common denominator in the design of the study was to obtain and compare: (a) results of cardiologic examinations, (b) general social and occupational background characterisitcs, and (c) inventory diagnosis of stress.

The study included 8841 male workers, 40 years old or over. Three job categories were represented: administrative, technical, and postal workers. The status of the job was defined as "high', "medium" or "low". A low level job was related to EKG abnormalities. Cholesterol level in the blood varied from job to job. Whether the job is an accurate indication of stress and cholesterol levels has not been determined. Diet and type of work may further distort this relationship. Heavy smokers did not seem to be under greater stress than non-smokers.

Resener, M. Burnout: The new stress disease. Harper's Bazaar, August 1979, 5 , 36-37; 92-93.

Working women are experiencing the effects of burnout at an increasingly high rate. Burnout is described as "chronic emotional stress on the job that is so completely exhausts certain individuals physically and mentally that they cease to care about their work." The syndrome is triggered by the enthusiasm a person has for a job that leads him to over extend himself. The warning signs include general fatigue, a tightness in the back and shoulders, sleeping difficulties, dependence on alcohol or drugs, a tendency to catch more colds and to stay sick longer. Socially, the individual has a hostile attitude toward people at work and evidences withdrawal from important relationships in his life.

Women are susceptible to burnout because many of them are still in careers which emphasize their role as provider. Women entering careers with high emotional stress have a higher rate of burnout than men. This is thought to be due to the need to have a "detached concern" to maintain emotional distance from the people they interact with. Women who overcommit themselves are willing to bend rules are more likely to burnout faster than less dedicated individuals. The women who work overtime have less time and energy to devote to themselves and to enjoy life.

Working women have special pressures to cope with because of social attitudes. They are burdened by the belief that a woman should be married by age 30. A woman also experiences more pressure to perform her job duties with fewer errors than her male counterparts. At the workplace a woman suffers isolation because she cannot easily associate with male coworkers for fear of creating sexual overtones. Wtih no outlet for her grievance, no source of positive feedback and no mentor at her place of employment, a woman faces burnout more quickly than her male counterpart. A major source of tension for women is the exercising of power. Women have a tendency to make decisions in a democratic, open-minded manner which some men view as weak and unassertive on the other hand, if a woman is masculine or authoritative in giving orders she may encounter resistance from male subordinates. The need to maintain respect and credibility, without being antagonistic or alienating, aggressive or overly ambitious is a particularly stressful challenge for a woman.

Many causes are cited for the difficulties women face in their careers. Professional schools are blamed for not preparing a student to care for herself before she is able to help others. The job situation with poor communication, inflexible working conditions, and lack of encouragement to try out new ideas are all factors in the cause of burnout. Poor organization and management in companies contributes to burnout as well as lack of reassurance or constructive criticism to employees from superiors. When employees believe themselves to be uncaring, uncommitted, and unsuited for their field the result is low morale, absenteeism, impaired performance, and high employee turnover. Burnout may also arise from not being able to use total resources at work or to gauge individual progress.

Suggestions on how to cope with job stress include: shortening the work day, admitting that burnout is a problem, distinguishing between stressful aspects of the job that can and cannot be changed, having a set of priorities, viewing contacts with the public as a challenge and an opportunity for self-growth, balancing role of mother and careerwoman, delegating unpleasant duties, alternating major tasks with those that are immediately gratifying, finding 'decompression techniques', building a support system among work associates, viewing work as a changeable aspect of one's life, and finally, starting work with realistic expectations.

Rice, B. Can companies kill? Psychology Today, June, 1981, 78-85.

For many years worker compensation awards were limited to cases of physical injury, in which disability is relatively easy to determine. Since 1960, however, court decisions have either forced or permitted 15 states to allow worker compensation payments in job-related cases of anxiety, depression, and other mental disorders severe enough to be disabling.

At first, the cases tended to involve a single dramatic incident; for example, the trauma of seeing a fellow worker crushed by a machine or plunging to death. But in six states, courts have extended coverage to cases of emotional or mental illness caused by gradual or "cumulative" injury for work stress. In all decisions, the courts have considered psychiatric injuries as "accidents", which is all the workers' compensation laws were meant to cover. In some cases, now pending, (one of which involves the death of an employee by suicide) the plantiff's attorneys are arguing that the "injuries" were not accidents but reckless and inhumane disregard of its employee's safety. The plantiffs attorneys further argue that since the injuries were not accidents they do not fall under worker's compensation law and therefore are subject to a damage suit. That distinction circumvents the limited awards (worker's compensation awards seldom more than $50,000) given under workers' compensation.

Many employers have grown cynical about what they see as a wave of dubious claims for psychiatric injury under the workers' compensation laws. They point out that many claims are made just before retirement by employees who have spent years at a job they suddenly claim has been causing them severe emotional distress.

Even if most of these claims represent legitimate cases of emotional or mental illness, the problems may be due as much to individual personalities or to stress at home as well as stress at work. Recent research has shown that peoples' reactions to potentially stressful situations on and off the job vary greatly, depending on their personalities. Many employers deal with these differences by offering their employees stress-reduction programs or psychological counseling either by in-house experts or by outside firms. Many American companies have commissioned organizational-climate studies of their operations; others have launched a variety of programs designed to improve their employees' "quality of work life". A more humane and, in the long-run, perhaps more productive commitment might offer employees not only job security but, within reason, emotional security as well, particularly for those who have spent 20 years or more with the company.

Richard, L.H. You too can live with stress. Industrial Distribution, 1978, 68, 93-95.

Stress has become a common cause in the reason for America's poor productivity. The decline in productivity is a result of the stress caused by increasing demands on employer as well as employee. Within the study, stress is examined for its positive and negative effect on individuals and their performance in relation to productivity.

Stress is seen as being a useful force when it results in desired actions. In the competitive field of industry stress is seen as the method for keeping management abreast of their competitors. When a person performs satisfactorily this indicates a positive aspect of stress because it has enhanced his performance.

The sources of stress are varied. They include: frustration, a loss, a compulsion to do things right, a change in familiar routine, a promotion, poor utilization of skills, and lack of communication. Sources of stress can cause a myriad of reactions. Frustration can result in a negative performance or cause others to become more stressful. Individuals that have an obsessive-compulsive need to do things right suffer from severe signs of stress and may have a neurosis. Change in routine or a sudden loss can result in founded or unfounded apprehensions such as a fear of loss of confidence. Poor utilization of skills causes a person to be highly stressed when he must perform tasks which are under or over demanding for their training.

Lack of communication was found to be an important factor in creating stress within a company. Stressful conditions are created when rumors are spread about information that is kept confidential. Lack of communication can cause a company to suffer loss of satisfactory performance by employees. An authority figure can create stress through the use of power because his subordinates have little defense. Some authority figures (managers) create stress in others by passing problems on to them instead of handling the problems themselves. This stress is blamed on the manager's fears and lack of confidence.

An important generator of stress is the belief in unrealistic goals and expectations. Many individuals that are high achieveres suffer from stress because their expectations are not realistic in relation to their experience and exposure. Managers set unrealistic goals for employees that increase frustration and stress. When employee confidence is not encouraged through recognition of achievement, productivity is often reduced. Individuals that are goal oriented inflict stress upon themselves because they don't prepare fully to carry out their goals.

The signs that indicate stress in an employee are: a decline in a person's performance, absenteeism, attitude changes, and changes in appearance. The more specific symptoms include anxiety, depression/withdrawal, aggression/feistiness/rudeness, and vandalism. Anxiety is manifested by fear, nervousness, headaches or sleeplessnes. These generally disappear as a person learns how to handle the new responsibilities they are given. A feeling of hopelessness can lead an individual into depression, withdrawal, or a lack of interest in work. This occurs often in individuals who feel they have not accomplished their dreams by middle age. Aggression and rudeness are common in young people who often suffer an anti-establishment syndrome. This is manifested in those with a feeling of guilt or incompetence and poor self-esteem.

Seven suggestions were offered to alleviate stress. The first is to take a good look at yourself, knowing your limits and your fears can help you to avoid stress. Second, don't take yourself too seriously by believing you are better or smarter than your coworkers. Third, look closely at your job. Are you overdoing or underdoing your job? Is it difficult for you to take the day off? Fourth, separate the controllable from the uncontrollable sources of stress. Learn how to minimize those stress-generating roles and enjoy the roles that bring a sense of fulfillment. Firth, is to talk it over. Discussing a probelm with a respected friend is an excellent stress reducer. This method is not used by some because they erroneously feel that talking over a problem is a sign of weakness. Sixth, take a break by learning to schedule in periods of relaxation. Seventh, avoid unnecessary stress by setting realistic priorities and admitting limitations.

Richardson, G. Functioning under pressure. The Canadian Banker and ICB Review, 1979, 86(5), 44-50.

This article deals with how people interpret anxiety based on a Transactional Analysis model. The intent is to identify each person's coping style in the hope that he will be able to utilize a variety of responses in managing stress. The article identifies five behavior compulsions called "Drivers". The point of the article is for the person to match his "driver" with the psychological demands of the job to increase productivity. All the "drivers" are acceptable at times; it is their inappropriate use or inflexibility that augments stress.

The first "driver" is be perfect. This person requires such a high standard of production that people working for him feel that they can never do well enough. There is no satisfaction from achievement. The second "driver" is be strong. No feelings are allowed, nor awareness of needs. The third "driver" is hurry up. This person has trouble with communication. He is always two jumps ahead of everyone else; he finishes other people's sentences and their work. He is the Type A described in current literature. "Please everybody" is number four. He thinks that if everyone is happy, everything will be okay. Failure causes extreme guilt; controversy produces anger which he cannot express. The last "driver" is try hard. This person tries so hard he doesn't do much. He gets involved with ideas but not action. The amount of rigidity of his "drivers" will place a person in a winner, non-winner or loser position in life. This rigidity is a measure of the amount of energy that we are putting to non-productive use.

Some people look for jobs that suit their "driver". Companies usually have a reward system for a certain kind of "driver" even though that might not officially be articulated. In order to use your "driver" productively you need to give yourself permission to change, and to relax so that you can utilize the best of your "driver" and eliminate the rigid part. Companies which operate with certain kinds of "drivers" need to be aware of what they are leaving out of their planning and operations so that their decisions are made by choice rather than unconscious programming.

Ricklefs, R. The stress question. Wall Street Journal, March 6, 1978, 18.

Many companies are taking an active interest in the health of their employees. Some companies have begun fitness programs and life style training to encourage their employees to take a more active role in improving their physical health. Improved employee health will save money for the company and the employee through fewer sick days and lowered insurance rates.

At some companies the fitness programs were started to help relieve stress in executives and managers. These two groups of employees were thought to be more prone to heart attacks and other stress-related disorders because of job demands. The life styles of these individuals (drinking, smoking, overeating, and little exercise) contributed to increased stress and stress-related disorders. The life style programs at most companies are voluntary, although employees at some companies may feel obligated to participate in them in order to maintain their positions and chances for advancement.

Riggar, T.F., Garner, W.E., & Hafer, M. (1983). Rehabilitation personnel burnout: Organizational cures. Journal of Rehabilitation Administration, in press.

This article provides a lengthy reference list which includes sources on the causes and sources of burnout, signs and symptoms of burnout, and coping strategies. References are tabled under the appropriate major headings to facilitate location of sources relating to the three topic areas.

The introduction cites three reasons which have contributed to the neglect of the burnout problem in rehabilitation: lack of a research base, inaction because of the lesser degree to which the syndrome affects administrators, and the limited administrative awareness of the manifestations of the burnout syndrome. Little of the previous research on burnout in rehabilitation has been concerned with assisting rehabilitation administrators in developing coping strategies for the personnel within their agencies.

References on coping strategies are organized under the headings of personal and organizational. The major part of the text reviews organizational coping strategies within the following areas: performance standards, involvement, tasks, training, expectations, job definitions/roles, conflict resolution, management/supervision, sharing/communication, and rest. Organizational cures are discussed in detail in order to aid the preparation and training of rehabilitation administrators.

References pertaining to the causes and sources of burnout are grouped under personal, environmental, and organizational. Signs and symptoms of burnout include sources on physical, emotional/mental, and organizational manifestations.

Rizzo, J.R., House, R.J., & Urtzman, S.E. Role conflict and ambiguity in complex organizaitons. Administrative Science Quarterly, 1970, 15, 150-163.

A literature review indicates that there is a correlation between chain of command and unity of command and the implications for role conflict and role ambiguity; it is apparent, however, that there is a lack of systematic measurement and empirical testing of these role constructs.

The chain of command principle states that a clear and single flow of authority from the top to the bottom should result in greater employee satisfaction and more effective economic performance and goal achievement. The principle of unity of command states that an individual should receive orders from only one superior and that only one plan and one leader should be accountable for his tasks to only one supervisor.

Role theory states that if the demands on an individual are inconsistent, the individual will experience role conflict (exhibited by stress, dissatisfaction, and poor performance) to a greater degree than if the conflict is absent. Role ambiguity develops from a lack of necessary information in a given organizational position. This suggests that the person will be dissatisfied with his role, will experience anxiety, will distort reality, and will then perform ineffectively.

Previous studies show that multiple authority disrupts the individuals orientation to the organization or the profession by requiring a choice, that individuals oriented primarily toward professional norms are more critical of the organization and more likely to ignore details, and that employees in such organizations frequently experience stress as a result of being caught in the middle. Accordingly it appears that multiple lines of authority are accompanied by role conflict and dissatisfaction for the employees and loss of organizational efficiency and effectiveness.

Studies that have examined applications or violations of the principle of unity of command were also reviewed. Multiple standards were found to allow a wide range of discretion on the part of the employee. In additon, persons reporting role conflict indicated that they experienced diminished trust in the superior imposing the pressure, that they like them less personally, that they held the superiors in lower esteem, and that their own effectiveness was decreased. Successful miltiple command was found only in technically advanced process firms where the coordination of work is intrinsic in the process itself. Mention is made of several firms where joint accountability is workable and is associated with business success and satisfactory interpersonal relationships. Therefore, certain factors can shield employees from the harmful effects of conflicting demands.

In reviewing the effect of role conflict on satisfaction and performance of workers, the authors cited studies performed in industrial, military, and educational settings. Role conflict was found to be associated with decreased satisfaction, coping behavior that would be dysfunctional for the organization, and experiences of stress and anxiety.

Several studies are listed which link role ambiguity with increased tension, anxiety, fear, hostility, decreased job satisfaction, loss of self-confidence, and lower productivity. Thus, previous evidence concludes that role ambiguity is associated with satisfaction and performance levels.

Since the available studies did not often employ systematic measures or produce empirical evidence, questionnaires were developed by the authors and administered to two samples of employees to measure employee need satisfaction, job-induced anxiety, leader behavior, organizational and management practices, and role conflict and ambiguity. A role is defined as expectations detailing behavioral requirements or limits for a position in a social structure. Role conflict is defined in terms of the compatibility-incompatibility in the requirements of the role resulting in conflicts between the focal person's internal standards and the defined role behavior; conflict between the time, resources, or capabilities of the focal person and the defined role; conflict between several roles for the same person which require different or incompatible behaviors; or conflicting expectations and organizational demands in the form of incompatible policies and standards of evaluation and conflicting requests from others. The definition of role ambiguity is stated in terms of the predictability of the responses to one's behavior and the clarity of behavioral requirements.

The questionnaire consisted of 30 items; 15 pertained to role ambiguity and 15 to role conflict. Responses were correlated with 45 other variables in the following categories: satisfaction, leadership, organization, anxiety, demographic, and propensity to leave. Subjects responded to each item on a 5 or 7 point Likert-type scale.

Two samples of employees were taken. Sample A consisted of central office and main plant personnel with a percentage from the research and engineering division. Sample B included a remaining percentage from the research and engineering division which had not been placed in Sample A. This provided representative sampling of the entire firm while providing maximum sampling of the research and engineering division.

The responses to the role questionnaire items were factor analyzed using an image covariance method and rotated using a varimax criterion in order to determine structural relationships within the role conflict and ambiguity definitions. The results indicated that the two concepts of role conflict and role ambiguity emerged as separate dimensions, that scales derived on the basis of the factor analysis of sample A were relatively independent for both samples A and B, and that theoretical components of these concepts did not emerge as distinct factorial entities.

When the concept scales were correlated with other variables, the scales tended to correlate negatively with measures of need fulfillment, positively with leader behaviors indicative of direct as opposed to indirect interactions with subordinates, and weakly, but positively, with anxiety and propensity to leave the organizations. Reasons are generated for some of the unexpected relationships among variables in the study. Further research can make role theory a useful tool in organizational analysis and theory.

Rousseau, D.M. Relationship of work to nonwork. Journal of Applied Psychology, 1978, 63(4), 513-517.

The relationship of work to nonwork is examined. Two models are explained with respect to how they have been used to describe the relationship of work to nonwork. These models are the spillover model and the compensatory model (Wilensky, 1960). The spillover model suggests that experiences characterizing work will be positively related to nonwork experiences. The compensatory model, on the other hand, holds that there is a negative relationship between work and nonwork.

This study attempts to assess the usefulness of one index of nonwork experience that parallels a commonly used measure for describing work, the Job Diagnostic Survey. The study also examines the relationship among work and nonwork experiences including absenteeism, stress, and satisfaction.

Employees in an electronics firm and a radio station participated in this study by answering questionnaires. Participants ranged in age from 18 to 60 years, with a mean age of 31. Seventy percent of the employees were females.

Instruments used to assess work and nonwork experiences were as follows:

1. the job dimensions measured in the Job Diagnostic Survey
2. the short form of the Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS), used to measure characteristics of work;
3. the General Motor Faces Scale was used to measure both satisfaction with the job and satisfaction with life outside of work.

Two indices of absenteeism were employed: the total number of days missed and number of intervals of consecutive days that the individual was absent (frequency).

Results of this study indicate that work and nonwork measures are positively related, suggesting that levels of variety and challenge at work are similar to those experienced off work. However, stress and absenteeism were found to be more highly related to the overall nonwork score than to the work score.

Rummel, R.M., & Rader, J.W., Coping with executive stress. Personnel Journal, 1978, 57(6), 305-307; 332.

Stress is a part of everyone's life. Stress is normal, even unavoidable; however, an excess of stress in daily life can have deleterious effects. Two typical types of stress executives face are those stresses inherent in the executive position, such as decision making and those stresses in the personal lives of executives, such as divorce.

The three stages of Selye's General Adaptation Syndrome are alarm reaction, stage of resistance, and stage of exhaustion. Cardiovascular disease is the most frequent specific result of stage three. Other stress related diseases include: atherosclerosis, hypertension and ulcers.

Major sources of executive stress include the pressure of time, intense and frequent deadlines, decision making, responsibility, and competition. Six methods for reducing stress levels are discussed:

Exercise: The best exercise a person can engage in is one that is enjoyed.

Relaxation: Once the priority is made the time will be there.

Sharing: Discuss your problems with those you trust and respect.

Recognizing stress: Learn to recognize the psychological manifestations of stress.

Flexibility: An important trait to develop in order to make healthy transitions in one's executive career and personal life.

Recognize your strengths and weaknesses: Make written lists of five major weaknesses. Play up assets and don't be afraid to admit weaknesses.

Schar, M., Reeder, L. G., & Dirken, J. M. Stress and cardiovascular health: An international study - II: The male population of a factory at Zurich. Social Science and Medicine, 1973, 7, 585-603.

Several factors have been repeatedly noted as risk factors in coronary heart disease: lack of physical activity, obesity, certain personality patterns, smoking, and situational emotional stress. The link between stress and animal disease is applicable to humans. The mediating factor of personality must be taken into account as well as the individual's expectations and perceptions of society and his assessment of his role in it.

Usually the term "stress" refers to the combination of psychological and physiological reaction patterns to personal or social situations, physical agents, actual or symbolic, real or imagined. Diagnosis of stress may be done in many different ways: pathological changes, corticosteroids, decrease in performance, pattern of physiological reactions, introspection regarding proprioceptive pattern of visceral discomfort, introspection regarding subjective perception and evaluation of tensions.

The sample in this study consisted of the male population over 30 at a factory in Zurich producing machinery. Due to absenteeism and incompleteness of some essential variables, the total sample finally numbered 885, about 90% of the target population. Of the sample 94% were in blue collar jobs and 6% were in white collar jobs.

The highest rates of myocardial infarction were found in the two lowest salaried groups. Regardless of education, heart disease was highest among foremen and lowest among executives. Job change directly affects heart disease; the more job mobility, the more disease. Education was found to be an intervening variable.

Schneider, B., & Snyder, R. A. Some relationships between job satisfaction and organizational climate. Journal of Applied Psychology, 1975, 60(3), 318-328.

After suggesting distinctions between organizational climate (which is classified as organization/description oriented) and satisfaction (which is classified as individual/evaluation oriented), this article hypothesized that:

1. people in an organization should agree more on their description of the climate than on their feelings of satisfaction.
2. there should not be a correlation between climate and satisfaction measures.

The method utilized to examine these hypotheses was a questionnaire sent to a sample of 50 life insurance agencies, (N=525), covering a variety of positions.

The questionnaire consisted of three sections mailed to the potential respondents. These sections were:

1. Climate measures with six dimensions:
    a. managerial support
    b. managerial structure
    c. intra-agency conflict
    d. new employee concern
    e. agency independence
    f. general satisfaction
2. Job satisfaction assessed with the Job Descriptive Index - (JDI) which included dimensions of:
    a. work
    b. play

  c. promotion opportunities
  d. supervision
  e. co-workers
3. Need satisfaction to assess:
  a. existence
  b. relatedness
  c. growth

In addition, there were other indices of organizational effectiveness measures such as:

1. agency ratings
2. grow volume
3. achieving appointment
4. agency turnover
5. average volume

The results were as follows:

1. Climate satisfaction measures are correlated for people in some positions in the agencies, but not in others.
2. People agree more on the climate of their agency than they do on their satisfaction.
3. Neither satisfaction nor climate are strongly correlated with production data.
4. Satisfaction, but not climate, is correlated with turnover data.

Schrank, R. How to relieve worker boredom. Psychology Today, July 1978, 79-80.

The modern production line requires an operation that is predesigned, preengineered, and preplanned to the smallest detail. Schedules and specifications must be strictly adhered to. Given these necessary requirements, an important issue is, how much opportunity can there be for the worker to think for himself or make decisions?

Recent experiments show little promise of bringing about any real fundamental change. The schemes proposed by management psychologists usually tend to diversify or rearrnage the tasks carried out by each worker. But the tasks themselves remain basically just as dull and repetitive as before. Clearly, if workers prefer multiple tasks, and find the new arrangement better than the old ones, they should be given such options. But rearrangement should not be sold as autonomy, creativity, and self-actualization, because this creates new expectations that cannot be fulfilled, and results in just another feeling of a letdown, leading to more frustration and discouragement.

Much factory work, and much office work as well, is repetitious and dull. As long as it is, job satisfaction for workers will depend to a great extent on the freedom they have on the job to do things unrelated to their assigned work. Such freedom offers far more potential for increased autonomy than any rearrangement of the work itself.

Assuming the existence of decent wages and benefits, factory managers should be most concerned about finding ways to increase such non-work freedom, starting with some of the same privileges enjoyed by white-collar workers, i.e. use of the telephone, taking a break, etc.

Additional inequalities between blue- and white-collar workers include weekly salaries regardless of the number of hours actually worked. In the designing of a manufacturing plant it may prove helpful to ask the workers to help design it in ways that would permit four or five of them to talk, fool around, use the telephone, in a word, to "schmooze."

Anyone who is familiar with factory life knows that workers find informal ways of doing this anyway, by having their "buddies" cover for them. Why not recognize this basic human need to socialize, and build it into the work structure? Given the same level of freedom, a community of workers could organize this informal buddy system to make their work life more congenial and humane, and still complete the amount of work expected of them.

Schwartz, E. B., & MacKenzie, R. A. Time management strategy for women. Management Review, 66(9), 1977, 19-25.

According to the American Business Women's Association, there are currently 36 million women in the work force. With household responsibilities, child rearing and on the job duties, time to those women in a precious commodity. Even though great advances have been made by women in sharing responsibilities with their spouses, why is it that no one asks a man how he manages his home life and his career? Studies reveal that working women still perform 80% of all household duties.

Time management is crucial to female employees; they cannot take their work home from the office, for their other job await them there. Of course, a bulging briefcase and long hours do not success or accomplishments make. What does? "Successful time management does not mean working harder, but working smarter" (p. 21). Adherence to four basic management principles (both at work and home) - planning, organizing, controlling and delegating - would help meet demands and result in the use of time to its greatest advantage.

In planning, one should define obtainable goals (keep sight of them), set up schedules, and use time logs. Work should be prioritized and each morning the first two tasks should be completed immediately. At the end of the day, one should remeber to list those duties not completed for tomorrow's priorities. Paperwork should be handled only once. Surveys reveal 80% of in-box contents could be handled at its first exposure, yet the average manager deals with only 20% that first time.

Organization and delegation of duties will greatly reduce the work load. Of course, periodic progress reports and check points keep the manager in control and the employee adequately counseled and guided.

Interruptions of all types should be minimized, whether they are organized, frequent meetings, unnecessary phone calls or uninvited co-worker drop-ins (simply because your office door was open).

A woman does not need two heads to wear two hats, just one good head with an organizational basis.

Sheridan, J. H. Executives at the breaking point. Industry Week, May 28, 1979, 201, 48-49; 52-54; 57.

Today executives and top-level managers are under great stress brought about through high pressure jobs. The stress can be so great that psychiatric symptoms may appear. When an executive reaches a point where professional psychiatric services are needed he may bereluctant to seek professional help. Although the field of psychology has acquired more humanistic attitudes in the last decade, the negative attitudes of society still discourage many individuals from seeking help.

Two examples are given to show how individuals cope with their stress. An advertising manager exhibited manic-depressive symptoms. After encouragement from his employer and the company doctor the manager saw a psychiatrist. The manic-depressive symptoms were caused by a chemical imbalance of the neurological system. Medication was prescribed to reduce the symptoms of depression. In the second example, a project manager felt that seeing a psychiatrist was unnecessary even though he was under extreme stress. He learned, however, that he suffered from high blood pressure as a result of stress and stress-related activity. Subsequently, the project manager regulated stress by not giving in to all requests from others.

The proper time to seek professional help is when the individual coping mechanisms are overwhelmed. This may be signalled when one loses conscious control on one's feelings, behavior, and thought processes. If an individual does not feel in control or does not trust himself when angry, it is time for him to seek help. When periods of depression or anxiety last for weeks or months at a time mental illnes may be indicated.

Psychoanalysts should be viewed as "personal management consultants, a source of help in managing (the individual's) life." The psychoanalysts see themselves as a source to help individuals achieve their fullest potential. Professional help is often needed to assist a person in finding a healthy way to cope with stress. The newer methods used as coping mechanisms, such as biofeedback, meditation, jogging, and progressive relaxation, are effective for short periods of time because an individual eventually goes back to the coping mechanisms that are deeply ingrained. Over-achievement and workaholism are believed to be closely linked to emotional problems. Workaholics often feel guilty when they don't work or perform at self-imposed standards. These individuals may need counseling to overcome these feelings, which in turn cause guilt or depression.

Factors that influence individuals to seek professional help come from many sources. An individual's ability to handle stress may be influenced by his age and social position. Stress may increase when a person feels he is not working up to potential for his age/seniority in the company. Top managers have difficulty admitting they have a problem they can't handle. Only when they have approval of the executive hierarchy do they seek psychiatric help. Companies have begun to adopt a more humanistic attitude and philosophy concerning mental illness related to on-the-job stressors.

The concluding research shows that some people are able to get better without professional help. It also shows there is a 15% advantage for the use of psychiatric professionals. It is important that a trained person is consulted to determine if the problem is medical or psychiatric. In the end, the person should choose someone he feels comfortable with to help him manage his life.

Shirom, A., Eden, D., Silberwasser, S., & Kellermann, J. J. Job stresses and risk factors in coronary heart disease among five occupational categories in kibbutzim. Social Science & Medicine, 1973, 7(11), 875-892.

Coronary heart disease is an epidemic that has spread in industrialized countries. Recent investigations show that this disease has also begun to affect those countries on the brink of industrialization. In these latter countries, increasing consumption standards, urbanization, occupational and job mobilization, decreases in physical activity, and changes in diet may be factors associated with increased risk of heart disease. However, researchers have not been able to study each of these factors and its effect on the heart. Thus, coronary heart disease has the potential to become a major epidemic.

The kibbutzim are rural, communal settlements. For more than twenty years, the kibbutzim have been undergoing rapid industrialization. They have begun to experience some of the characteristics associated with other industrialized countries. These are the same factors that have been associated with the etiology of coronary heart disease. Israeli kibbutzim now taste the bitter with the sweet.

Researchers in this study examined the etiology of coronary heart disease. The objectives of the study were to "appraise the occupational differences in job-related stresses, coronary heart disease risk factors and coronary heart disease morbidity and to explore the patterns of relationship of job stresses and strains with coronary heart disease risk facotrs in selected occupational categories." Selected occupational categories for this study included agricultural workers, craftsmen, managers and professionals, factory workers and clerical workers. Subjects for the study included 762 adult Israeli kibbutz members, all of whom were male. All had obtained medical examinations between 1970 and 1971. From available data, researchers sought to find out how mean scores differed across job categories. Secondly, they examined the patterns of associations of coronary heart disease risk factors with job stresses and strains characterizing each of the aforementioned occupational categories.

Results indicated that when comparing coronary heart disease (CHD) rates across many occupational categories, there was significant difference only in the morbidity rate of agriculture laborers and other occupational categories. However, this finding may be the result of the below average age of agricultural laborers. Secondly, it was discovered that more of the job stress measures and the CHD risk factors had no significantly different occupational means. Further, the differences that were found in job stresses and strains related to role overload, self-reported lack of physical activity and psychosomatic complaints. Fourth, the patterns of associations of the cluster of job stresses with CHD risk factors analyzed by smallest space analysis increased in strength, beginning with white collar workers and ending with agricultural workers. Further, the two measures of objective physical work capacity were associated with the majority of the coronary heart disease risk factors. Lastly, it was discovered that white collar workers, despite age, were more apt to be diagnosed as having subnormal electrocardiographic findings, were more likely to experience weight gain, and tended to have lower levels of job stresses and strains with increased longevity in their occupations.

Shostak, A. B. Blue-collar stress. Reading, Massachusetts: Addison-Wesley, 1980.

Stress defines a process or a system which includes not only the stressful event and reaction to it, but all the intervening steps between. The stressor is a stressful event or stressful condition that produces a psychological or a physical reaction in the individual that is usually unpleasant and sometimes produces symptoms of emotional or physiological disability. The stress reaction concerns the consequences of the stimulus caused by a stressor.

The largest single group of blue-collar workers consists of approximately 25 million white males (nonwhite males & all females comprise the other two groups). The term "blue-collar" as used in this source refers to white males employed as craftsmen.

Potential workplace stressors of a "hard-nosed" variety are four: monetary compensation, safety at work, quality of work setting, and the stability of the job. Compensation includes stressors that are fully as vexing and complex as any known in blue-collar lives. Six major stress reactions here include: 1) the struggle not to lose ground to inflation's erosion of purchasing power; 2) the fear that "cures" for inflation may prove more costly for blue collar workers than the illness itself; 3) the discomfort over being blamed for the wage-price spiral; 4) the irregular character of nonsalaried compensation; 5) the anxieties that accompany the jockeying for position among jealous blue-collar occupations; and 6) the ambivalence that accompanies reliance on compensation gains through "category" bargaining wins rather than through individual effort. These six stressors, especially when they operate in tandem, profoundly undercut the otherwise superficial aura of economic well-being suggested by absolute high levels of pay. Reform possibilities include the following: 1) compensation stress might be alleviated somewhat if more workers were covered by cost-of-living adjustment; 2) compensation stress might be lessened if more companies experimented with the "cafeteria-style" compensation package plan; 3) illness potential might be reduced by pre-job assignment screening of a newcomer's genetic blood deficiencies and his sensitivity to industrial chemicals; 4) accident prevention might be enhanced through a joint labor-management education campaign; 5) accident compensation might be improved if workers began to keep work diaries; and 6) fear of work loss might be lessened if other states followed California's example and began to experiment with "partial" unemployment insurance; by an extension of supplemental unemployment benefits; if labor, management, and government could agree on new legislation to require advance notice for businesses closing or relocating; and if unions and companies experimented with incentives to earlier retirement and shorter work weeks.

There are four subjective aspects of work: status, supervision, sociability, and satisfaction, each of which entails especially costly stressors in the lives of America's white male blue-collar workers. Blue-collar workers occupy the bottom rungs of this nation's occupational status ladder. The general public apparently thinks little of manual work when it comes to measuring its standing according to the dimensions Americans use in assessing a job: money, power, prestige, nature of the work, and amount of job prerequisites. The major subjective stresses that are associated with supervision involve the enervating pettiness of various work rules and the nature of relentless pressure from increased production demands. Perceived reverse discrimination in hiring and promotion practices adversely affects perhaps what is the highest order need in the work place, that is, the enjoyment of "significant others" among coworkers. The picture of satisfaction with work has revealing and complex contradictions. Poll data suggest many workers are "satisfied" with their work, but interviews uncover much work-related discontent. Overall, the characteristic blue-collar response to the challenge of finding satisfaction in work entails reducing one's goals so far that one can appear to be satisfied. Work status might profit from increased acknowledgment of blue-collar contributions and from more work enrichment experiments. Work supervision might profit from new approaches like transactional analysis. Work sociability might benefit from new experiments with behavior modification, expanded affirmative action programs, from work place experiments with flex-time, sensing sessions, access to own files, work modules, and experiments with the New Economic Process (NEP).

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Singh, A. P., & Srivatsaua, A. K. Occupational level and job satisfaction. Journal of Psychological Researches, 1975, 19(2), 56-59.

The purpose of this study was to explore the relationship between occupational level and job satisfaction. Job satisfaction is a widely studied aspect of industrial psychology. The term job satisfaction is a pleasant and positive attitude possessed by an employee toward his job life. Vroom employs the basic concept of value in explaining job satisfaction. In Vroom's model, job satisfaction reflects value of the job for its incumbent.

The status or level of the job is one of the important aspects inherent in the job which determine job satisfaction. The occupational status depends not only on the way the employee regards the status of his job, but also in the way it is regarded by others whose opinion he values. It has been observed that employees are more dissatisfied in jobs that have low social status and prestige. A positive relationship between the level of satisfaction and the level of the worker's job has been reported by a large number of investigators. Hoppock found the degree of satisfaction directly related to the status of the occupation: professional and managerial workers were more enthusiastic than subprofessional and supervisory personnel, white collar workers were less satisfied, followed by skilled workers, semi-skilled, and unskilled workers.

In a community where the individuals are unable to assess the social value of a job by personal knowledge, the common denominator of money is generally employed. The higher the wages of the job, the more important the work must be. The jobs of a higher level provide greater satisfaction due to greater opportunities to satisfy self-esteem, autonomy and self-actualization.

The purpose of the present investigation was to explore the relationship between occupational level and job satisfaction.

For the study, 140 subjects from two different job groups were randomly selected. Half of the subjects were first level supervisors from Bhailai Steel Plant and 70 were rank and file workers from Spinning Section of Elgin Textile Mills, Kanpur.

Job satisfaction was assessed through the S-D Employees Inventory. This inventory contains 80 items covering four areas: job management, personal adjustment and social relations. The items are in interrogatory form and are in Hindi. The questionnaires were administered to the selected subjects in their respective shops and sections.

The results obtained were very much in the expected direction. The employees with high job levels were comparatively more satisfied than the employees of low job levels. In the study the respondents were divided into three groups: high, moderate, and low on the basis of their obtained scores on the S-D Employee Inventory. The analysis of the data obtained indicated that job satisfaction declines with the level of the job. Supervisors indicated that 85.71% were highly satisfied with their job while 45.71% of the rank and file workers were found to be highly satisfied. In the supervisory group, none fell in the low satisfaction group; whereas, 38.58% of the individuals from the rank and file group were found to be dissatisfied with their jobs.

In the present investigation of job satisfaction level, supervisors were found to be comparatively higher than rank and file workers. The most probable reason behind this is that the supervisor's job carries comparatively more prestige, power, wages, integration with his work group and opportunity to control the activities of others, which contribute more to the job satisfaction of the supervisors than the rank and file workers. In light of the present study, it may be concluded that the occupational level and the level of job satisfaction are positively correlated components of job life.

Student, K. R. Changing values and management stress. Personnel, 1977, 54(1), 48-55.

Business executives are experiencing changes in management methods due to changing social, political, and economic forces. "Emotional strain and feelings of tension, anxiety, and a sense of futility can result from the inner conflict between a manager's needs for efficiency, profit, and productivity, and a heightened concern about the welfare and self-worth of the individuals who work for him or her." Managers are under increased stress when they use humanistic management techniques. Creating a supportive work environment for employees can create feelings of apathy and futility among managers. These feelings create tension when a manager has to act against his value system. The changing value system of society has also caused a change in the type of employee found in today's workforce. American workers tend to demand more job satisfaction and greater participation than ever before. Also, the workforce as a whole has changed to include younger, better educated, female, and minority workers.

A force influencing business management is social responsibility. It causes a dual stress in young managers who are more susceptible because of humanistic training. These humanistic managers seem more prone to heart attack than those who do not have a humanistic orientation. The size of an organization determines the quality and quantity of stress a manager endures. In very large organizations peer support insulates a manager from feelings of remorse, concern, and unkindness that result from fulfilling managerial duties. Within smaller organizations there is no support to protect a manager who faces even greater stress.

To reduce the effect of stress, a manager can utilize several coping mechanisms. The perception of stress and the conflict that results is a primary step in reducing stress. A manager is able to cope with conflict when he has self-understanding and is accepting of human characteristics of anxiety, grief, conflict, and tension. The second step is realization of the value of feelings, an especially compassionate quality which helps produce good managers. Third is use of introspection as a method to "deal creatively with anxiety and inner conflict." Fourth is development of a stable self-concept and emotional maturity, which is probably the most difficult. This aspect of a person's character, mature self-concept and self-acceptance, help an individual maintain his sanity by allowing him to perceive the world accurately.

Student, K. R. Personnel's newest challenge: Helping to cope with greater stress. The Personnel Administrator, 23(110), November 1978, 20-24.

Discussed in this article is the issue of stress and its impact upon today's managers. The focus of discussion is the inner conflict between a manager's need for efficiency, profit, productivity and an increasing concern about the welfare and self-worth of the individuals who work for him or her. This inner conflict results in emotional strain and feelings of tension, anxiety, and futility on the part of managers.

As pointed out in the article, the new management values have multiple origins. Some of these are: a movement toward greater individual freedom in America; changes in the workforce, (i.e., today's subordinates are less willing to accept close control and authoritarian pratices than was the case a decade or two ago); and a new conception of business itself on the part of society.

Suggestions are given to help today's managers cope with greater stress. It is noted that if the businessman accepts the reality and inevitability of conflict, he will understand that human tension and conflict are a condition for existence and he will view them as opportunities for personal change and growth.

Introspection is suggested in the article as the only way to deal creatively with anxiety and inner conflict. It is stated that the process of self-creation turns people inward toward their own creative springs and taps the resources of their own creativity.

Taylor, K. E., & Weiss, D. J. Prediction of individual job termination from measured job satisfaction and biographical data. Journal of Vocational Data, 1972, 2, 123-132.

The relationship of job tenure as a criterion variable to numerous predictors was studies in an effort to determine the length of time an individual would remain in an employed position. Nineteen biographical items as well as intelligence, aptitude, interest, and personality inventories were variables considered in the study. Studies previously conducted have indicated that job satisfaction is positively correlated to tenure, absenteeism, and voluntary turnover. "There are important differences between the studies using biographical data and those using job satisfaction as predictors of termination which make direct comparisons of the efficacy of the two sets of predictors difficult from existing studies." The goal of this study was to compare satisfaction and biographical data in predicting turnover.

The subjects of the study were 475 employees of a Minnesota discount store employed in positions from stock boy to cashier. The group was 75% female and 25% male, average years of education was 12, and average length of employment was 2 years. In 1967, the group was administered the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) and biographical data was collected. In 1968, 93 of the 475 employees had been terminated. For the analysis, 467 employees were divided into development and cross-validation samples. The following predictors were used: MSQ scales, biographical items, a sub-set of biographical items (age, number of dependents, education, sex) and job tenure.

Results of the study indicate that satisfaction is the primary predictor of termination. Some individuals may remain in a particular job if the job environment or the job's reward system were changed to increase "an individual's satisfaction, with a consequent accrual of benefits to the organization and the individual simultaneously." Satisfaction intrinsic to the work itself is a primary factor in an employee remaining in a position. Secondary to this is a low need for intrinsic reinforcers. There is a greater likelihood that an older, female employee who has been with a company for several years will not leave as quickly as a young male with few years of service. There is also a relationship between satisfaction and age and sex of an individual, although it is not as strong as assumed. The data suggest that how an individual feels about his job is a better predictor or termination than "who he is".

Tosi, H. Organization stress as a moderator of the relationship between influence and role response. Academy of Management Journal, 1971, 14, 7-20.

People are influenced to act in certain ways by the manner in which they perceive the communications sent to them by authority figures. Stress is the result if there are ambiguous or unclear pressures. Pressures are also affected by power; affective bonds such as liking, trust, and dependence; and style of communication.

This study deals with role conflict and role ambiguity in relation to three responses: effectiveness, job threat and anxiety, and job satisfaction. The information was collected from managers of consumer loan offices over a large geographic area. The managers are supervised by one person who has responsibility for 25-30 branches; in some cases there were staff assistants acting as immediate supervisors.

The results were as expected. Higher levels of job satisfaction were associated with lower levels of role conflict. Role conflict was positively related to job threat and anxiety. Effectiveness was not related to role conflict or ambiguity. Another finding was that people who have influence over work environment have less concern about their future. The suggestion was made that if job performance is to be increased and anxiety reduced to increase performance, then clarification of responsibility and authority must be accomplished.

Travland, D. A. Do you work too much...and play too little? Management Quarterly, Fall 1977, 18(3), 13-17.

Too much work and too little play can not only make Jack a dull boy but also a very sick boy with sometimes fatal consequences. Such an imbalance disrupts personal, family and social life with unwanted results if not realized in time. It is essential, therefore, that one's career be put in perspective and in balance so as to avoid becoming a Work-a-holic, an Overworried overworker, an Energetic executive, or an Everyday overworker.

The Work-a-holic is one who is wedded to his job. He dreads being away from work even for vacation. The work-a-holic believes that he cannot be replaced. His existence revolves around his work. The work-a-holic is convinced that as long as he has to overwork, he is needed and appreciated for his true worth. The Overworried overworker is governed by many imaginery phobias surrounding his career--fear of failure, fear of competition, fear of being replaced, fear of disgrace if he should lose his job, etc. As a result, the overworried overworker works himself and his subordinates harder and longer to keep abreast of things. He cannot take time off from work for fear that he will be defeated by these imaginery threats. Therefore, he and all significant others suffer. The Energetic executive is characteristic of the extraordinarily dedicated worker. He is one who finds hard work rewarding and is always willing to go the extra mile for the company. He is mindful that his dedication to his work got him where he is and thus believes that if he continues in like manner, trudging even more doggedly, he will reach higher heights. The Everyday overworker feels pressured to get the work done. He feels the responsibility to do his work and then some. He becomes physically and emotionally ill but continues to drive himself without realizing the source of the problem until he becomes incapacitated.

The body sends out many signals that spell "overwork". It is important that the individual heed to these signals and proceed to put his life in perspective. By setting up long and short-term goals, some basic direction can be provided for one's life. Flexibility should be allowed in order to prevent rigidity. Balance is the key to a healthy personality.

Tung, R. L. Comparative analysis of the occupational stress profiles of male versus female administrators. Journal of Vocational Behavior, 1980, 17, 344-355.

The majority of women workers are employed in lower paying occupations with few women in managerial/administrative positions. The reasons commonly given for the relative scarcity of female administrators are that women are less committed to their careers and that women are more emotional and less rational than men. These feelings are not held only by men; studies show that women also tend to underestimate the competence of other women. An attempt was made in this study to validate these assertions: 1) by comparing the occupational stress profiles of male versus female educational administrators to determine whether there were significant differences, and 2) by examining whether males and females were equally good candidates for administrative jobs (often associated with a high degree of stress).

The research was conducted as part of a larger study to determine the sources of occupational stress among educational administraotrs. An instrument was developed for use with a homogeneous population (educational administrators) that could measure the diverse sources of social-psychological stress which arise in organizational roles. The 35-item questionnaire (Administrative Stress Index) was factor analyzed to determine underlying sources of stress; the four factors identified were task-based stress, role-based stress, boundary-spanning stress, and conflict-mediating stress; 1207 questionnaires were returned (of which 108 were from females). Stress profiles of women administrators were then compared to those of their male counterparts on these four dimensions of stress while controlling for effects such as administrative experience.

This study dealt only with self-perceived stress as opposed to physiological and task-defined stress. Stress refers to any characteristic of the job environment which poses either excessive demands or insufficient supplies to meet an individuals needs. It also refers to a misfit between the person and the environment. Previous research suggests that a stressor (sources of stress) must be perceived in order to be stressful. In this study, it was indicated that the higher the level of perceived stress, the poorer the physical health.

Previous research indicated that women experienced less stress than men due to the fact that women were employed in less responsible jobs and to the fact that a woman's job was secondary to her natural role as a mother and wife. These reasons were invalidated by this study because the subjects were engaged in the same type of administrative positions and the women included in the study were full-time administrators who view their careers as lifetime careers. Findings indicated that women administrators experienced lower levels of stress than male counterparts on all four factors, particularly with respect to boundary-spanning (gaining public support) and conflict-mediating (resolving parent/student/school conflicts) stress. In view of the current public criticism of the school system, these factors are extremely relevant to administrator roles. Implications are that women can be equally as effective as men as administrators, if not more effective under certain conditions.

Underwood, H. W. Emotional health of executives. *Personnel Administration*, July/August, 1970, 54-55.

The executive in our society is especially subject to emotional stress. There is the burden of constant decision-making, pressures to meet deadlines, often heavy workloads to carry, and emotionally-loaded personnel problems to resolve. The executive himself is never free from evaluation and judgment by superiors and subordinates.

One of the most common problems for the executive involves troubled feelings about authority. In exercising authority, he may suffer unreasonable anxieties and guilt because of supposed or real resentment from subordinates, or he may take too much pleasure in exerting authority.

Marital conflict is a common secondary stress growing out of job pressures. The executives' long hours and out-of-town duties may leave his wife feeling left out, deprived and lonely.

There seems to be few really satisfactory avenues for the release of tensions for the executive entangled in a network of stresses. The biological "flight" or "fight" response requires effective management through skilled transformation of the dam up of primitive urges into refined energy which flows smoothly and allows for effective decisions and actions.

There are a variety of means to handle stress. Some individuals may unwind best with leisure time in an easy chair, while others may need vigorous activity. For some people, the only way to clear the mind is to fill it just as full with something other than work. The important thing is not to be afraid to try new activities. It is easy to get into "relaxation ruts."

On the job clashes may sometimes be minimized when there is care that subordinates take a real part in decision-making processes and in the resolution of ultimate differences. Of equal importance is a sensitive awareness of one's own true feelings and attitudes as well as those of others.

Uris, A. How managers ease job pressures. International Management, 1972, 27, 45-46.

A specialization area which deals with executive health has found that "executive responsibilities tend to create tensions which are unique to the manager, a kind of occupational hazard". These tensions show up as pressure, headaches, irritability, ulcers, high blood pressure and heart disease. One study reports that the anger that builds up every day and the tension that accompanies it create more chronic problems than smoking or fat in the diet.

Physical well-being is a source of stress in that some men see the job as something to be enjoyed "as ancient warriors were supposed to glory in the ordeals of the battle". These men see concern about physical health as unmasculine.

There are a number of ways to react to tension and stress on the job. Anger and panic are self-destructive ways to deal with crisis. Criticism is often directed at the business rather than the person; it is important to be objective. One should endeavor to recognize his/her own symptoms of tension and instead of smoking or drinking, attempt to get a change of scenery. This may be as involved as a vacation or as simple as looking out the window or chatting with a colleague about sports. Another coping technique is to leave some breathing time in the schedule so that you have the flexibility to change your work rhythm. Helping someone else with his/her problem may make one's own look different. Each person can identify the activities which distract him from his particular tension.

Van Maanen, J. & Katz, R. Individuals and their careers: Some temporal considerations for work satisfaction. Personnel Psychology, 1976, 29, 601-616.

Research findings are presented which describe the temporal patterns of work satisfaction characteristics of four distinct careers. The purpose was to determine the pattern of work satisfaction for employees at different career stages and then to compare these patterns across different occupational careers. Data was obtained from an attitude survey with 4,400 governmental employees participating.

The Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) was used to measure overall employee satisfaction; data derived from the MSQ were also reduced to correspond to specific features of organizational settings: job properties, interaction context, and organizational policies.

Careers were classified by respondents' Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC) category; career stages were defined by respondents' self-reported organizational tenure. Four career stages were defined by respondents' self-reported organizational tenure. Four careers were distinguished: administrative, professional, clerical, and maintenance.

Results demonstrated the need to view (and study) work satisfaction from both a component and career perspective. The public sector employees who were surveyed were more satisfied with job properties and interaction context than they were with organizational policies. The critical finding was that differences in satisfaction were at least as great within a given career category at various temporal stages as were differences in satisfaction between careers.

Some tentative conclusions were drawn:

1. It is a questionable practice to use general or overall satisfaction

as the only variable of interest in organizational and occupational research.

2. Care must be taken to not simply assume that careers in which movement up the hierarchy is generally possible are more satisfying than careers in which it is not.
3. It should not be assumed that, in most careers, the important changes in perspective occur relatively early in the occupation and that the remainder of career experiences merely reinforce those early changes.
4. Future career studies should begin to attend to the interactions of work, self, and family variables across a career.

Vash, C.L. The Burnt-Out Administrator. New York: Springer, 1980.

Administrators no longer have either the power or autonomy previously attributed to them. Two rewards which used to make all of the responsibilities and heartaches of administrative work worthwhile were the power and autonomy that went with the job. There is now a burgeoning constellation of forces, all interacting at once, which reduce and sometimes annihilate the degree of control an administrator may enjoy. Workers of all occupational classes are unionizing. Funding shortages everywhere grow worse, on a yearly basis. Demands such as those for affirmative action, consumer involvement, and accountability keep taking their toll. When there is high unemployment, people cling to their jobs, even if they are no longer effective, and the problems associated with firing incompetent workers worsen. It is trying to deal with all of these situations, and many more, and all at once, that immobilizes the administrator's ability to try the new, the experimental, the creative.

It is difficult to separate the system from the people who create and manifest it. A crazymaker is something which, by its very nature, tends to make people crazy. The double bind and the mixed message are prototypic crazymakers. There are plenty of double binds and mixed messages in work organizations.

Job security may be thought of as future money. Company retirement plans are among the most cost-effective future money plans existing. As a result, many people hold jobs of which they have long since grown weary, solely because they offer the best future money alternative available.

To protect civil servants who are already in the system from losing what few promotional opportunities there are (compared with the numbers of workers at the entry level), rules are created which prohibit jobs at supervisory, middle management and top management levels from being filled by outsiders. The positions are reserved for those who are paying their dues by climbing up the hierarchy from the bottom. Opportunities designated "promotional only" ensure that one's competitors will be others who, like oneself, have stuck with the system. This has some unfortunate consequences for an organization. Often times one is aware, as an administrator, of someone outside who could do the job magnificently, but one cannot touch them. The workers within the system are likely to be low risk takers. The civil service tends to attract people who prefer to avoid the risks of less secure employment, and their risk-avoidance is nurtured by the system once they are in it. The last thing you want if you are administering anything that needs to be improved is a house filled with low risk-takers. Lastly, and closely related, there is a strong tendency for the workers in such an organization to think very much alike.

The result of new managers in the top management positions exempt from civil service hiring is that the work slows down and may virtually stop until questions concerning who will be fired and who will continue are answered. The result from mergers and acquisitons will produce similar disruptive events throughout the organization.

Diagnostic signs of administrative burnout are as follows: chronic complaining; changes in lunch hour behavior (lunch hours may begin earlier and earlier and extend later and later into the afternoon); in some, an attitude of anarchism develops, resulting from an increasing sense of losing control of events surrounding them; searching for another job; and the sense of fun is gone out of work.

Several preventive measures and strategies are named and discussed. They include, in part, changes in jobs within the organization, changes in careers altogether, and changes in philosophy or attitudes about work and life via wilderness workshops, exercise, nutrition, meditation and so forth.

Walsh, R.J. You can deal with stress. Supervisory Management, 1975, 20(10), 16-21.

Many people today are living and working at a fast rate of speed. Included in this group are managers. Along with other professionals, they need to find effective ways to deal with stress. Managers who hold supervisory or middle-management positions are especially prone to their own type of stress-related problems. Rapid change and economic uncertainty are but two of the stress-provoking situations that all managers will encounter. In effect, professionals in any field need to slow down and consider the consequences of overstress.

Stress may be defined as "nervous tension that results from internal conflicts evolving from a wide range of external situations." Like love, joy or pain, stress is a part of life. Researchers believe that mild stress is beneficial for some people. However, no two persons react to stress in the same manner. Conditions that bring on overstress in one individual may have the opposite effect on another. Therefore, stress is an individual occurrence. For one individual, stress can mean one thing and for another, it may have quite a different meaning.

Research has shown that internal conflict in one's life is brought on by a series of major events. All of this in turn produces stress. Stress can lead to psychological and physical problems. Researchers contend that physical illness created by stress can result from such an ordinary occurrence as a change in work tasks. Researchers have developed the Social Readjustment Rating Scale to calculate the amount of energy an individual would use in a 12 month period to handle major changes in life. Results have indicated that people who confronted many stressful events during the year had a greater chance of becoming physically ill than those experiencing fewer stressful events.

The life style and behavior of the manager reflects the manner in which he is affected by tension. A manager may for instance, display a "Type A" behavior pattern. This individual's work is never done. He is constantly moving, trying to get more and more done in less time. Similarly, the "Driver" is an overachiever. He is a workaholic--always on the move. The "Type B" behavior pattern, on the other hand, is demonstrated by the individual who takes his time getting things done and as a result is more at ease. All managers should be conscious of these signs at all times so as to shed any of these debilitating characteristics.

To deal with stress effectively, managers, like other individuals, need to plan effectively. Taking one day at a time and allowing for relaxation periods usually helps to reduce the stress level. Setting goals and establishing priorities is another way. This helps prevent underachievement and unmet goals. Lastly, managers need to relax. Changing the routine occasionally can help reduce tension. Going for walks during the day, exercising and/or taking a vacation may also produce some relief.

Warman, B. Improving the quality of work life. *Management Accounting*, 1980, *58*(6), 18-19.

General Motors is recognized as being in the forefront of American industries in its use of the Quality of Work Life (QWL) approach to management. A general definition of QWL, reasons why General Motors incorporates it, and some basic principles for action are provided in this article.

QWL is defined as a goal (the creation of more involving, satisfying, and effective jobs and work environments for people at all levels of the organization) and as a process (through active participation, the needs and development of people are brought together with the goals and development of the organization). The QWL, based on Maslow's hierarchy of needs, assumes that basic and security needs are met in society; and that the work force is a medium through which group and achievement needs can be fulfilled. If not met on the job, these needs will be met outside of work. Japanese business success seems to be based on this premise, i.e., that the work environment helps to mett group and achievement needs.

General Motors' interest in QWL is based not on having a well-adjusted work force, but on having a productive, successful business. Some basic principles of effective change are listed: 1) Develop a broad and flexible understanding of how organizations function, change, and develop; 2) Start where the organization is, not where it is thought to be (management must implement strategies at its own level initially); 3) Measurement and research can provide a base of information from which to start; 4) Decision-making at all levels must be real and not based on fake participation; and 5) Supportive resources must be provided on a continuous basis.

General Motors is implementing QWL through the following strategies: 1) QWL survey is given annually to all salaried staff and some nonsalaried staff, 2) key executives meet annually to discuss individual division happenings; 3) plant managers and staff participate in monthly organizational development and QWL sessions, 4) new plants are designed according to socio/technical systems, 5) conferences, internal and off-site workshops provide diffusion of the process, 6) UAW is involved in a number of union/management efforts at an early stage, and 7) a documentation process is underway to provide feedback and guidance.

Warrick, D.D. Managing the stress of organization development. Training and Development Journal, April 1981, 37-41.

Stress management may play an important role in the success or failure of organization development (OD) programs. Many OD practitioners are not aware of or do not allow for the stress that organizations experience during OD activities. In the long run, OD should reduce unnecessary organization stress by increasing organizational effectiveness and health, decreasing dysfunctional activities, and improving the work climate. In the short run, OD activities themselves can be highly stress producing and the process of OD can become dysfunctionally stressful to an organization unless the stress of the OD is recognized and properly managed.

The purpose of this article is to emphasize the importance of recognizing and managing the stress produced by OD and to encourage practitioners to acknowledge stress management as an important OD skill. The bottom line is that OD practitioners need to be skilled in managing the stress of OD. Not only will this skill benefit the organization engaged in change, but it will also benefit OD practitioners who need to apply stress management to themselves, as OD is a high stress profession and often leads to early burnout because of stress mismangement.

What is stress? Stress is our mental, emotional, physical and behavioral response to anxiety producing events. The way we process events will determine whether our responses to stress will be adaptive or harmful. Stress itself is neither good nor bad; it can motivate us to excellence, or it can cause serious harm or even death. Either too little or too much stress can result in submarginal performance. Thus, stress can be an important ingredient in OD as it can motivate growth, change and improved performance. However, stress overload can seriously impede or even defeat an OD program. How does OD cause stress? One of the major causes of stress is change. The well-known stress test developed by Holmes and Rahe has a central theme. Most of the items are concerned with change-changes in relationships, circumstances, status, etc. Since the focus of OD is change, it is likely to be a stress producing activity.

In addition to involving long periods of change, OD can result in uncertainty about one's position, role, status, or future, and difficulties in adapting to changing norms and values. OD programs can be threatening to those who fear change, feedback, or how the OD program may effect them personally. Another OD stress producer can be the increased time demand that is placed on participants who must continue to perform their ongoing responsibilities. The large investment of human resources, finances, and time increases the pressure for demonstrating measurable accomplishments. This pressure is aggravated by the difficulties of establishing valid measures and the continuing possibility that some uncontrollable variable such as change in economic conditions or the priorities of top management may effect the program.

Stress overload occurs when stress results in harmful or dysfunctional behavior. It is important to point out that stress overload can occur from too little pressure as well as too much and that our individual tolerance for stress is dependent upon such factors as: how anxiety producing events are perceived, our habit responses to anxiety producing events, the nature of the stress, how much stress is there, how long the stress lasts, and one's ability to manage stress.

The three major alternatives for managing stress are: to change stress producing circumstances, to change stress producing behaviors, and to develop more effective stress responses. In OD programs, a change in stress producing circumstances could include using structured feedback instruments. Stress producing behaviors are unconstructive behaviors that cause stress for the self or others. In an OD program, participants may change their leadership style, confronting skills, tendency for procrastination, or stress producing habits such as smoking or excessive drinking. Since our stress responses are learned, we can improve our ability to manage stress by developing more effective responses. Perhaps the best way to accomplish this task is to develop a stress plan for dealing with stress, to begin to visualize oneself as an effective stress manager so the mental programming for handling stress can be changed, and to carry the stress plan with you and practice it until it becomes a habit.

A stress plan should include at least the following four components:

1. Know your stress symptoms; you need to catch stress before it catches you.
2. Develop alternatives for getting in mental and emotional balance; develop skills in learning to think positively and rationally and in expressing feelings rationally and constructively.
3. Develop alternatives for getting in physical balance; keep your body fined-tuned.
4. Develop an action plan; devise a plan for solving problems and list other options for handling stress.

Waters, L.K. & Roach, D. Relationship between job attitudes and two forms of withdrawal from the work situation. Journal of Applied Psychoology, 1971, 55(1), 92-94.

Attitudes concerning the job in general and specific aspects of the work situation were correlated with termination decisions and recorded frequency of absences during the year following administration of an attitude questionnaire. A sample consisted of 160 nonsupervisory female employees in one regional office of a national insurance company who had responded to a job satisfaction questionnaire as part of an earlier study. The final sample included 131 persons: 109 current employees, and 22 terminations.

None of the nonattitudinal variables were related to the termination criterion. Of the overall job attitude measures, those requiring self-reports were more related to actual job behavior than reported degree of dissatisfaction. The criteria correlated with termination were work, growth and advancement, responsibility on the job, and a sense of achievement.

For the frequency of absence criterion, correlations with both job grade and company tenure were significant. In the correlation between termination and frequency of absence it was indicated that those who terminated had more absences than nonterminators.

The results appear to support the hypothesis that withdrawal from the work situation is related to job attitudes.

Wernimont, P.F., Toren, P., & Kapell, H. Comparison of sources of personal satisfaction and of work motivation. Journal of Applied Psychology, 1970, 54(1), 95-102.

This study was designed to determine whether technical employees actually perceive any differences in the way that various aspects of their jobs affect their work motivatoin, as compared with their personal satisfaction from those jobs. A sample of 775 scientists and technicians in a large midwestern business organization were included in the study.

The most important variabels overall in contributing to increased on-the-job effort are doing the kind of work that one likes to do, being responsible and accountable for all or nearly all aspects or assignments, and having the opportunity to take part in making decisions which affect one's work. Only slightly less important are being rewarded for good work with a promotional opportunity, being rewarded for good work with extra money payments, and being faced with a difficult challenge in one's job.

The study found that those factors which seem to have a greater impact on motivation than on satisfaction do not fall into any clear classifications. These respondents more often indicated tht challenging work and responsibility have a greater impact on motivation, but also put capable supervision, knowing what supervisors expect, and being kept informed in the "motivator" class. The behavior and abilities of supervisors seemed to have a much greater impact on motivation than on satisfaction.

These respondents apparently joined this company primarily because of the rewards they thought would be available to them. Nearly all respondents indicated that stimulating and interesting work assignments are the rewards most sought after. In addition to stimulating work in the present, they also seek organizational and financial advancement as part of their rewards. A major reason for their employment and continued motivation is the definite connection between their efforts in this company and the probability of attaining these rewards.

White, B.L. Job attitudes, absence from work and labor turnover. Personnel Practice Bulletin, December 1960, 16, 18-23.

Over a six month period the relationships between attitude, absenteeism, and labor turnover were examined. One hundred and sixty semi-skilled factory workers were surveyed. Findings indicate that female employees are absent more frequently than male workers. There was a strong relationship between "perception of absence" and actual absence. Employees with low absenteeism believed the absence rate to be high. The reasons cited for this were poor working conditions, pressure for production and poor communication between management and employees. Male and female workers had contrasting opinions of work. The women, though generally satisfied with their jobs, had complaints mostly about physical working conditions. Men were concerned with job advancement and their ability to make decisions concerning their jobs. In a follow-up study that was conducted a year later it was determined that people who left their jobs had a higher absence rate than those who stayed employed with the company. Many of these same individuals also indicated less satisfaction with the company than those who remained.

There was a trend indicating that "high absence" workers held unfavorable attitudes to the work task, and to foremen. However, unfavorable attitudes to work task, and to pay, seemed to be more important in leading to ultimate job separation than did attitudes to other aspects of the job. One researcher reported that the factors important to factory workers are the task itself, intrinsic interest in the job, physical conditions of work, pay, supervision, and coworkers. Conflicts in these areas were also the reasons given for leaving a job. Men and women demonstrated different levels of satisfaction and involvement with their jobs. It is suggested that the three phenomena are interrelated and that a low level of morale led to a high rate of "casual one and two day absences" and a high turnover rate.

White, J.K. & Ruh, R.A. Effects of personal values on the relationship between participation and job attitudes. Administrative Science Quarterly, 1973, 18, 506-514.

Modern industrial life frustrates the need individuals have for achievement, status, and self-actualization. In addition to fulfilling these higher ego needs (Maslow), increased employees participation in decision-making is seen as providing the organization with untapped or redirected energy which previously had been directed against the organization. Since several studies have indicated that blue-collar workers have few expectations or little desire to gain higher order need fulfillment from their jobs, it appears that the most fruitful direction for theory and research concerning the effects of participation in decision-making would be to emphasize interactions between participation and individual differences in personal background, needs, expectations, and values. This study was designed to investigate the moderating effects of individual values on the relationships between participation in decision-making and attitudes toward the job. A sense of accomplishment, equality, freedom, independence, responsibility, self-control, participation, and ambition were values hypothesized to moderate the relationships between participation in decision-making and job attitudes.

Data was obtained from 2,755 questionnaires collected from 19 separate plants of six midwest manufacturing organizations operating on the Scanlon Plan. Forty-six percent of the respondents were farm-raised, 56 percent resided in communities ranging in size from 2,000 to 100,000 population, and nine percent in cities greater than 100,000. A Likert-type scale was developed to assess the variables of participation in decision-making, job involvement, motivation, and identification with the organization, and then administered to the employees. Because previous research indicated that the moderating effects of employee values might be restricted to blue collar workers, the data were analyzed separately for workers and managers to determine the correlation between participation in decision-making and job attitudes.

Results of this study were that participation in decision-making was consistently positively related to job involvement, motivation, and identification with the organization. However, caution in interpreting this data should be exercised due to the self-report nature of the study, i.e., employees who are highly involved may perceive/report higher degrees of participation than those with less favorable attitudes and employers may be more receptive to ideas from those employees with more favorable attitudes.

Contrary to the hypothesis, values did not consistently moderate the relationship between participation and job attitudes. Several methodological problems may have contributed to this: the self-report may have created a response bias, the peculiarities of the sample may have influenced the results (all companies were operating under the Scanlon Plan to some degree and all were midwest plants), and the value scale used yields value scores that are dependent on the individual's own scores and are not directly comparable to scores of other individuals. On the other hand, it may be that the proponents of participative management are correct in deemphasizing the importance of individual differences on the relationship between job characteristics and employee responses.

Wilensky, H. Work, careers and social integration. International Social Science Journal, 1960, 12, 543-560.

Since the industrial revolution, the interplay between labor and leisure has become a major problem. Work became a separate system of roles, work schedules fluctuated, work roles underwent rapid change, stability was disrupted, and units of social organization grew in size. Due to the division of labor, it became the tendency of workers to seek gratifications in pub and brothel. Two major leisure hypotheses are described: 1) the compensatory leisure hypothesis, wherein the routine of leisure is an explosive compensatoin for the deadening rhythms of factory life, and 2) the spillover leisure hypothesis, wherein the alienation from work becomes alienation from life (Engels). While Engels complained that men were being condemned to labor, de Tocqueville was fearful they might be condemned to leisure (a leisure that would be trivial, unchallenging, and uncreative). These classic indictments of the industrial revolution are also adopted by contemporary social critics who have taken primarily two views: 1) an ever increasing split is seen between leisure and labor, spurring interpersonal and intrapsychic strain and social instability, and 2) weak attachments to private life are seen as indicating stronger attachments to the remote symbols of nation, race and class.

By focusing on the connections between work role, career pattern, and style of life, this study aimed to link specific attributes of the work situation and career to styles of life, and more generally to variations in the strength and kinds of ties that bind persons and groups to community and society.

Interviews with 108 blue-collar workers and 30 white-collar workers indicated an extraordinary degree of career disorder (i.e., persons did not occupationally move in an ordered, predictable sequence). Careers are generally considered to be a major source of stability for modern society, although not more than a third of our labor force are in identifiable careers. Implications for the future include: the most mobile segment will develop a 'pseudo-community' life style (the stronger the career commitments, the more they will integrate leisure and work"; the mobile mass who cannot succeed in the status scramble will develop a pattern of status-compensation leisure using the leisure ladder for their climb; and the non-mobile mass will continue to retreat from work and withdraw into family or neighborhood localism. There are indications that the vast majority of the work force is withdrawing from work as a central life interest. Unfortunately there is little opportunity for middle class or working class workers to use occupational identity as a status-winning device. In addition, since work history is punctuated by periods of unemployment and disorderly shifts among jobs and industries, the trend will be for the worker to seek stability outside the job.

With the individual in a narrow circle of kin and close friends on one hand and a powerful state and great mass organizations on the other, according to critics of industrialism there is great danger of the population becoming vulnerable to mass behavior, personality appeals and fanatic leaders. On the other hand, withdrawal from work may result in new leisure commitments that are more personally satisfying and socially integrating for the worker.

Wofford, J.C. The motivational bases of job satisfaction and job performance. Personnel Psychology, 1971, 24, 501-518.

Utilizing the motivational theories of Maslow (1954) and Herzberg (1966), and the job satisfaction formulation of Rotter (1955), Davidson et al. (1957), and Vroom (1964), the authors formulated a theoretical position contending that job motivation is a function of the strength of needs and the expectation that job performance will result in need gratification. They then presented nine (9) hypotheses designed to explore some of the motivational bases of job satisfaction and job performance, and to analyze their interaction.

Hypothesis 1. Employees whose needs are not gratified are signi-ficiantly higher in job dissatisfaction than are those employees whose needs are gratified. Supported.

Hypothesis 2a. Employees whose lower and upper level needs are gratified are significantly higher in job satisfaction than are those employees whose lower level needs are gratified but whose upper level needs are not gratified. Supported.

Hypothesis 2b. Employees whose lower and upper level needs are not gratified are significantly lower in job satisfaction than are employees whose lower needs are not gratified but whose upper level needs are gratified. Not supported.

Hypothesis 3a. Employees whose upper level needs are neutral and whose lower level needs are gratified are not significantly lower in overall job satisfaction than are employees whose lower level needs are neutral and whose upper level needs are gratified. Supported.

Hypothesis 3b. Employees whose upper level needs are neutral and whose lower level needs are not gratified are not significantly more dissatisfied than are employees whose upper level needs are not gratified, and whose lower level needs are neutral. Supported.

Hypothesis 4. Employees who are high in their expectation that their efforts will result in need fulfillment are significantly higher (a) in need gratification and (b) in job satisfaction than those who are low in expectation. Supported.

Hypothesis 5. Employee performance is signficiantly correlated with the expectancy of reward. Supported.

Hypothesis 6. Employee performance is signficiantly correlated with the strength of needs. Supported.

Hypothesis 7. In organizations in which performance and satisfaction are positively related, employees who are high in both performance and satisfaction are significantly higher in need gratification and in expectancy than are those who are low in both. Supported.

Hypothesis 8. In organizations in which performance and satisfaction are unrelated or negatively related, expectancy is high and gratification is low for high performers who are low in satisfaction, while the reverse is true for low performers who are high in satisfaction. Supported with regard to gratification. Not supported with regard to expectation.

Hypothesis 9. Employees who report content related experiences as "satisfying incidences" and context related experiences as "dissatisfying incidences", (a) are significantly higher in their expectation that performance will result in need gratification, (b) are significantly higher in overall satisfaction, (c) are higher in need gratification for upper level needs, and (d) are higher in performance than are those employees who describe context related experiences as satisfiers or content related experience as dissatisfiers. Partially supported.

Subjects consisted of nonmanagerial employees from four local companies of the Dallas, Fort Worth area. They completed a 62-item Likert-type job satisfaction scale, a Need-Gratification index, a Likert-type Expectation index, and a Critical Satisfaction Incidents index.

In general, the results of the study did not support Maslow's theoretical position. Herzberg's two-factory theory also found little support. The expectancy theory appeared to show more promise as a basis for understanding and predicting job motivation and satisfaction than either of the other theories.

Womack, W., Mundt, J. & Reinking, R. What you should know about stress. Management World, 1981, 8, 10-11, 44.

Stress has become a major concern in the business world. There are two definitions of stress that are especially relevant to business executives: (1) Stress is any action or situation that places special physical or psychological demands on a person, and (2) Stress is a general term for the whole area of problems that include the stimuli which produce the stress reactions.

During periods of stress the equilibrium is disrupted by changes which cause a person to alter his perception and understanding of the situation. Stress is even present in positive events such as vacations, weddings, holidays, and promotions. Stress can be physical, environmental, psychological or social and can be generated from within or outside an individual. Much of a person's reaction to stress is a result of his perception of the magnitude of the changes that produced the stress and the variables in his environment upon which he can draw as resources.

The body emits physical reactions to stress primarily in the central nervous system. This is the "flight or fight" reaction which produces an overabundance of hormones. The exaggerated supply of hormones to the heart, liver and kidneys as well as other body systems can produce significant deterioration to the point of debilitating illness. The authors suggest that since we carry the stress within us, we might learn to recognize stresses and decide how to deal with them so that the stresses are spread out over a period of time and not concentrated into one day.

There are methods of determining how much stress a person can handle. One way is to develop the technique of a "stress thermostat" which measures the symptoms. Specific symptoms include: overgeneralizations, negativism, diminished concentration and memory deterioration. Two specific ways to alleviate stress are: to diminish the amount of stress in a given time period and to create a system to vent or "drain" extra stress. Interpersonal stress may be controlled by improved communication and assertion training. Time stress may be ameliorated by planning. Another way to reduce stress is to become aware of one's personal outlook of pessimism or optimism and then to develop more realistic ways of evaluating reality.

Exercises of various kinds are stress drains. Physical exercise should last ten to forty minutes a day to produce the maximum benefit. Relaxation involves varied strategies such as meditation, autogenic training and progressive muscle relaxation. Meditation is helpful for people who can't stop thinking about the experiences of the day, while autogenic training is more effective for people with stresses involving the central nervous system. The article gives a detailed description of autogenic training procedures and of progressive muscle relaxation techniques.

The type of exercises or stress reduction methods will differ depending on people and situations; however, each person should cultivate a variety of methods of stress reduction which are helpful to him.